

2002

A Comparison of Goal Orientation by Gender and Level of Competition Among High School and Collegiate Basketball Players and Its Relationship to the Motivational Climate

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Eastern Illinois University

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A Comparison of Goal Orientation by Gender and Level of
Competition Among High School and Collegiate Basketball
Players and its Relationship to the Motivational Climate.
(TITLE)

BY

April Frost

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF

MS Physical Education

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

2002
YEAR

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A COMPARISON OF GOAL ORIENTATION BY GENDER AND LEVEL OF
COMPETITION AMONG HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGIATE BASKETBALL
PLAYERS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a difference in goal orientation among athletes across gender and levels of competition . A second purpose was to determine if perceived motivational climate was correlated with the type of goal orientation that basketball players of both gender and different levels of competition developed. The subjects in this study consisted of 191 basketball players. Specifically, (n)= 25 male collegiate athletes, (n)= 55 high school males, (n)= 47 female collegiate athletes, and (n)= 64 high school females. The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) was used to assess the athletes attitudes during sport. The Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ) was used to determine the motivational climate. Two-way MANOVA results revealed that when groups were combined by level of competition, males were significantly higher in ego orientation than females ($p=.010$). Results also revealed that high school athletes were more task oriented than college athletes ($p=.047$), however, there were no gender differences ($p=.291$). There were no significant gender by level of competition interactions, for task ($p=.554$) or ego ($p=.166$) orientation. MANOVA revealed significant differences based on gender and level of competition. College males were significantly ($p=.026$) higher in mastery than high school males whereas high school females were significantly ($p=.001$) higher in

mastery than college females. MANOVA results for mastery and performance indicated a significant gender by level interaction. A one-way ANOVA was run with a Bonferroni correction on gender and level of competition versus mastery and performance. High school females were significantly higher in both mastery ($p=.049$) and performance ($p=.001$) than high school males. College females were significantly lower in mastery than college males ($p=.041$), however, there were no significant differences between genders for performance ($p=1.00$). For levels of competition, high school females were significantly higher than college females ($p=.008$) in mastery, however, they were significantly lower in performance ($p=.001$). High school males showed no significant difference in mastery ($p=.155$) or performance ($p=1.00$) compared to college males. These results indicated that there was a significant ($p=.000$) positive correlation ($r=.274$) between task orientation and mastery climate. There was also a significant correlation ($p=.000$) between a performance climate and ego orientation ($r=.354$). Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that differences exist in goal orientation between high school and collegiate basketball players. High school basketball players were higher in task orientation than collegiate basketball players. Male basketball players show a greater ego orientation than female basketball players, regardless of level of competition. Finally, there was a low, yet significant, correlation between motivational climate and goal orientation. Specifically, those players in a performance climate showed a greater tendency for ego orientation and those in a mastery climate showed a greater tendency for a task orientation.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Brian Pritschet. He was extremely supportive, helpful, and patient with my lack of statistical knowledge. I would also like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Jill Owen and Dr. William Russell, for taking their time to help me out and lending their guidance.

A sincere thank you to Valerie Rayce and Dr. Rob Doyle for helping to see that some of the questionnaires did get distributed to different locations.

I would like to give a special thanks to my closest friends, Mary Babiarz and Alan High. Without your support during my stressful moments, I never would have made it through this year. Thank you for always believing in me, even when I had my doubts.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents, Jim and Debbie Frost, for all of your encouragement and always challenging me to do my best.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The role of motivation and goal orientation among athletes has undergone a great deal of research. According to Nicholls (1989), each person is born with a set desire to achieve or to seek challenges and master new tasks. By the age of twelve years, children have developed differential levels of dispositional goal orientations and display a tendency to be high and/or low in task and ego orientations (Nicholls, 1989). It is also suggested that rather than high and/or low task and ego orientations, goal orientations can be viewed through a profile approach. This approach divides task and ego orientation into four different groups to apply to every type of individual (Georgiadis, Biddle, & Auweele, 2001). It is as the children mature they become capable of developing a specific type of understanding of ability in achievement situations. The development of understanding one's ability aids in establishing goals and working towards a set achievement to improve in performance. The issue of motivation has been a topic of interest in athletics. The topic of who and what motivates athletes most effectively has sparked an increase in research related to this topic (Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). The basis of a majority of the research comes from the education-based work of Nicholls (1989). It is assumed that the main goal of athletes in achievement settings is to show competence (Seifriz et al, 1992). It is also thought that the perceptions of goal attainment come from how someone views the causes of their outcomes in achievement and how they perceive their levels of ability (Seifriz et al, 1992; Nicholls, 1989). Individuals customize their own personal goals based on their climate to strive towards performance.

Cognitive theories of Achievement Motivation have uncovered the relevance of goal perspectives to the understanding of behavior in achievement contexts (Ames, 1984; Nicholls, 1989). Although all theorists do not use the same labels, the research has focused on the social, psychological, behavioral anecdotes and consequences of two goal orientations. It is thought that these two goal orientations show the criteria individuals use to subjectively define success and failure in achievement settings. Nicholls (1989), has said that task and ego orientation suggest how one will develop their own level of competence in activity and their own judgment.

How an athlete defines success and their own level of competence play an important role in the Achievement Goal Theory. This theory is based around goals central to achievement and motivation that are dominated by the demonstration of competence. (Biddle, 2001). It is unlikely for someone to choose those tasks in which they demonstrate incompetence. However, if one thinks that they are competent at one particular task they are more likely to attempt that task. "Achievement motivation is based on personal definitions of success and views of the causes of success, some reflecting beliefs in greater personal agency or perceived competence than others" (Biddle, 2001, pg. 103). How one views their own success and ability is a significant determinant of the goal orientations that they will develop.

Research has found that there are different types of goal orientations as well as different motives for each individual athlete (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988). In the past, the Achievement Goal Theory has been used to explain the different developments of motivation in achievement settings. The primary goal of individuals participating in sport is to demonstrate their own ability (Treasure & Roberts, 1998).

How one perceives their climate and their dispositional goal orientations are the two divisions of motivation that when combined, affect the athlete's behavior when they are in an achievement setting (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). With this theory it is assumed that the primary goal of the athlete is to demonstrate ability and competence.

Achievement goal theory can only be applied when the individual is focused on achieving a desired goal in an achievement setting. It is based on the idea that the individual is participating only to achieve some type of set goal. In order to determine what is leading the individual towards this achievement, it is necessary to understand their goal of action.

When examined, it was found that the motivational climate could affect how the achievement behaviors associated with a particular state of involvement are selected (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). Situational cues found in their motivational climate can alter their goals. One's disposition as well as the motivational climate they are exposed to combine to determine their goal orientations. Different goal orientations can influence the selection of cues that an individual will take in from a sport environment. However, if they are exposed to a particular motivational climate for a long period, this can affect their achievement goal orientation (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998).

How an individual interprets their sport experience and the nature of these experiences can determine whether they adopt a task or ego oriented involvement. Whether someone is task and/or ego involved is a direct reflection of his or her individual goal orientation. The presence of performance and mastery oriented cues in the achievement context are situational criteria that may alter whether or not the individual takes on a particular state of involvement (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1989).

One's disposition can be subdivided into two descriptive categories, task

orientation and ego orientation. According to Nicholls (1989), how an individual interprets success and the possibility for their dispositions to change over time is brought into their athletic environment. How they define success is different based on whether they are task or ego involved. What the athlete deems necessary to succeed is associated with the development of their orientation.

The two types of achievement goals are known as task-oriented goal perspectives and ego-oriented goal perspectives. Task orientation is when an individual is focused on mastering and taking interest in and learning the actual activity to achieve success (Ommundsen & Roberts, 1996). These individuals see success as improvement and achieve satisfaction by working hard. It is beneficial to accept errors, as they are seen as cues to increase one's effort. A task-oriented individual is likely to put forth a maximum effort and choose tasks that are challenging and work at those tasks (Givvin, 2001). Task involvement will prove to be beneficial because the achievement behaviors will be adaptive in that the person is more likely to continue with failure, they will exert effort, select challenging tasks, and be interested in the task (Roberts, 2001). This will allow the individual to achieve skill development as well as an increase in motivation. They enjoy the task at hand and are motivated to do their very best to achieve success. In short, a task orientation has been viewed as a predictor of positive motivational outcomes from sport.

The opposite of a task-oriented individual is an ego-oriented individual. They strive at exceeding the performance of others. It is not about being the best you can be; it is about beating out others (Ommundsen & Roberts, 1996). They are concerned with social comparison and their own ability is demonstrated only by having their own

performance exceed that of others (Ommundsen & Roberts, 1996). Success is not determined by a maximum effort because they only attempt those challenges in which they can dominate. This type of task choice can prove to be hazardous because individuals avoid admitting their own deficiencies (Givvin, 2001). In elite athletes, an ego orientation is likely to develop and not produce a negative affect. This is due to the fact that the athletes are competing against other teams in hopes that they will win. When an athlete has high task orientation, it is acceptable to have high ego orientation also because they have the necessary skills needed to back up their high self-confidence.

When one is task-oriented, task mastery and personal improvement reflect high competence and therefore subjective success. According to Nicholls (1989), perceived ability is self-referenced in a task orientation. An ego orientation, however, is not concerned with one's own ability, but entails the demonstration of a normative conception of ability. For an individual with a strong ego orientation, subjective success means being better relative to others on a normative challenging task. It is suggested by Nicholls (1989), that the factors that determine the degree to which one is task and/or ego oriented develop from their own values towards skills, namely viewing ability as capacity. A person's degree of task and ego orientation develops from how they view different social experiences that reinforce their demonstration of superior ability or learning (White & Duda, 1994). It is also suggested that the distinction between the two orientations comes from the students own reason for their efforts. Some students attributions focus on their efforts and interest in the task which are related to those beliefs that effort is needed to achieve their desire to improve their performance (Nicholls, 1989). On the other hand, others develop attributions of effort which include the need to perform

better than others and not taking the chances at doing worse than them (Nicholls, 1989). It is these attributions which contribute to the degree in which one is task and/or ego oriented.

When goal orientations are discussed, it is often assumed that an individual is either task or ego oriented. However individuals may take on both task and ego orientations. Goal profiles are applied to examine efforts of both goal orientations with the athletes focus of interest in mind. These goal profiles are based on a median score on both the task and ego scales. Four classifications are formed: high task/high ego, high task/low ego, low task/high ego, and low task/low ego (Duda, 2001). It is assumed that through these goal profiles one can assess how to properly motivate an athlete. Someone who is high task/high ego is most likely very motivated. These individuals are focused on doing their best and mastering the task at hand, while still having the competitive edge needed in elite sports. An area of concern is when individuals develop low task/low ego orientations (Duda, 2001). These individuals are less concerned with demonstrating ability and have a lower self-esteem about their ability. Another area of concern is those who have high ego/low task orientation (Duda 2001). These individuals are constantly comparing themselves to others based on ability, when in fact there are situations in which their ability is not as high as others are. An individual's level of motivation is affected by several factors. In terms of goal orientations, it is not always as simple as task or ego, but more likely some combination of the two factors.

A task orientation has been viewed as a positive predictor of positive motivational outcomes from sport. This has been shown using a goal profile approach in which task and ego goals are combined. This is based on the common finding that task and ego

goals are largely uncorrelated. Goudas, Biddle, and Fox (1994), showed that children reported enjoyment of an endurance run fitness test higher when they adapted a high task and low ego goal orientation and argued that this profile is more indicative of a more intrinsic motivation for physical activity behavior. In comparison, Newton and Duda (1993), reported that higher levels of enjoyment of bowling by university students were associated with a high task and low ego goal orientation. However, Hom, Duda, and Miller (1993), found that high task and high ego goal orientations were associated with higher levels of enjoyment for young athletes. Fox, Goudas, and Armstrong (1994) reported similar findings in young children.

Goal orientation differs from person to person based on several factors. Situational and dispositional factors play a role in the development of a goal orientation. Situational cues found in one's motivational climate can alter whether someone becomes task or ego involved (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988). Depending on the type of climate one is exposed to, this can greatly affect the type of orientation they develop. One who is influenced by a mastery climate may develop a more task-oriented life style (Roberts, 2001). A mastery climate should be based on learning and perfecting the skills needed for the activity. It is important to develop the skills necessary to succeed at their sport before becoming focused on winning (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). Those who learn in a mastery climate are more likely to take satisfaction in being a member of the team rather than becoming concerned with their own personal performance. A mastery climate can be applied when improvement from game to game is the goal of the coach (Roberts, 1992). When coaches or teachers provide private, one on one feedback about the individuals demonstrated ability they are developing a mastery

climate (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). Situations should be characterized by the learning and mastering of skills and the focus should be put on trying hard while doing the best that you can do (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999).

Performance oriented climates are generally characterized by interpersonal competition, social comparison, and public recognition of demonstrated ability (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). When a performance climate exists, individuals are more likely to become ego-involved (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). These athletes are more concerned with winning instead of the skills at hand. If someone were better than they were at a task, they would not attempt the task for fear of losing. They do not see satisfaction just from being a team member, but take pride in their own performance and have great concerns about failing. Generally this type of climate stems from a coach who is focused on comparing members of the same team. The coach may also tend to favor certain athletes over others. He/she may pay more attention to the stars on the team, leaving the other athletes to feel inferior (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). If the situational cues are strong in favor of a performance- oriented climate, dispositions may be overridden. Even if they were strongly task oriented, if the motivational climate is so strongly influenced by a performance climate, ego orientation will take precedence. Individuals in this climate, more than a mastery climate, are less likely to enjoy the task at hand. Because a performance climate is based on ability being the means of success, if the individual has low perceived ability they will not view themselves as successful or have fun in the activity. They focus more on why they are not winning rather than self improvements or skill perfection.

Where the achievement goal theory states that dispositional goal orientations and

perceptions of the climate are two dimensions of motivation that interact to affect behavior, an interactionist looks to combine these two variables (Nicholls, 1989). Research to date deals with goal orientations and perception of the motivational climate separately. An interactionist approach looks to combine both the individual's goal orientations and perception of the motivational climate to provide a more complex understanding of achievement behavior and perceptions of the sport experience (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). A particular behavior pattern or goal of action may be due to the type of climate the individual is exposed to. Dispositional goal orientation is viewed on an individual basis that will determine the likelihood of selecting a specific goal of action and displaying a particular behavior pattern; while situational factors are thought to change these probabilities (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Roberts, 2001). According to Dweck and Leggett (1988), the possible interaction of these two factors leads one to an achievement context where one's goal orientation is altered by situational cues. If in an achievement context the situational cues favoring either a task or ego goal are vague or weak, an individual's dispositional goal orientations should be more predictive than the situational criteria. If, on the other hand, the situational cues are strong in favor of either a performance-or-mastery-oriented climate, dispositions should be less predictive, and greater homogeneity among responses of individuals within that context should result (Treasure, 2001).

An interactionist perspective that integrates goal orientation and perception of motivational climate is one in which goal orientation may be viewed as an individual variable that differs and that will determine the probability of adopting a central goal of action and displaying a particular behavior pattern. The situational factors are seen to

potentially alter these probabilities. In a sport context where the performance or mastery oriented cues are weak, an individual's pre-disposition toward an ego or task goal orientation should hold strong. In contrast, if the situational cues are strong in favor of either performance or mastery oriented climates, dispositions may be overridden. The stronger the disposition, the less likely it is to be overridden by situational cues or the stronger the situational cues necessary to override it.

Whether an individual becomes high or low in task and/or ego orientation is affected by their motivational climate. If one develops high task involvement and they are focused on improving their skills it may be due to a mastery environment. On the other hand, if they develop a high ego involvement and focus on doing better than their peers, it may be a result of a performance-oriented environment. When attempting to find out how an athlete receives the greatest benefits possible from sport, it is important to know how the environment that one is providing is affecting the athlete's views.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a difference in goal orientation among athletes across genders and levels of competition. White, Duda and Hart (1992) reported that girls thought their parents encouraged a more task-involving environment whereas boys felt their parents were creating a more ego-involving environment for them. Their work suggests that there are gender differences in goal orientation. A second purpose was to determine if perceived motivational climate correlated with the type of goal orientation that basketball players of both genders and different competitive levels developed. There is research in this area demonstrating that whether someone is influenced by a performance or mastery-oriented climate will affect

his or her goal orientation (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988). A high mastery climate may lead to a high task orientation and a high performance climate may lead to a high ego orientation.

Hypotheses

It was hypothesized that males would prove to be more ego-oriented, while female athletes would be more task-oriented. Duda (1989), looked at male and female high school athletes to see if there was a gender difference in their goal perspectives. Females were significantly higher in task orientation than males and males were significantly higher in ego orientation than females. This gender difference may be due to the way males and females view their level of competence and process their success and failure experiences (Duda, 1989). The second hypotheses in this study was that high school athletes would be more task-oriented and concerned with improving their skills, whereas collegiate athletes would be more ego-oriented and focused on being the best. The rationale behind this belief comes from the work of White and Duda (1994). Throughout their study they suggest that those athletes that participate in a higher level of competitive sport should be more ego oriented than those involved in a less competitive team. White and Duda (1994), studied male and female athletes in youth, high school, intercollegiate, and recreational sports. They found that intercollegiate athletes were significantly higher in ego orientation than those in a lower level of sport involvement (White & Duda, 1994). This indicates that collegiate athletes may tend to be higher in ego orientation than high school athletes. Ryska and Yin (1999) also found a difference among competitive levels in sport. They studied male and female soccer players involved in both recreational and competitive leagues. Their results suggested that athletes participating in recreational

sports perceived their teams to be higher in a mastery-oriented climate than competitive league players. This suggests that there is some difference among competitive levels in sport. The third hypothesis was that motivational climate would be correlated with the athletes' goal orientation independent to their gender or level of competition. Those who were exposed to a mastery climate would be more task-oriented and those who were exposed to a performance climate would be more ego-oriented. In a study by Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992), it was demonstrated that players perceiving a mastery-oriented climate showed stronger focus on effort than those with low mastery-oriented climate; and in contrast, those who perceived a performance-oriented climate would focus on ability as the cause of success.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined:

Task-orientated Goal

A self-referenced conception of ability. Ability is demonstrated by exerting effort and experiencing improvement (Williams, 1998).

Ego-orientated Goal

A normative view of ability individuals conceive ability as outperforming others with equal or less effort (Williams, 1998).

Perceived Motivational Climate

An individual's composite views concerning the situational emphasized goal structures operating in an achievement setting (Ames, 1992).

Performance Climate

An environment in which the physical activity context is characterized by interpersonal competition, social comparison, the coach or teacher emphasizing outcomes and winning, and public recognition of demonstrated ability, a performance climate exists, and individuals are more likely to be ego involved (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999).

Mastery Climate

An environment in which the physical activity context is characterized by learning and mastering skills, trying hard and doing your best, and the coach or teacher using private feedback about demonstrated ability (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999).

Delimitations and Assumptions

The following factors were delimitations and assumptions in this study:

1. Only participants between the ages of 15-22 years were used for the data analysis.
2. Participants in the study were assumed to have answered the questions honestly and to the best of their ability.
3. The only sport examined in this study was basketball.
4. Only colleges in the Ohio Valley Conference and high schools in central Indiana and Illinois were included.

Significance of the Study

Research suggests that there is a connection between motivational climate and goal orientations. How one perceives their climate can alter their action and efforts toward sport. When motivating an athlete, it is necessary to know how one's actions are affecting the athletes. This study was intended to determine the significant goal orientations across gender and level of competition so that when motivating athletes, the proper climate can be provided to benefit specific athletes and can be geared to the specific need of athletes of one gender or another. It was intended to show the differences in goal orientations that exist among males and females as well as high school and collegiate basketball players. Whether one's motivational climate is related to their goal orientation was studied. This was done to see if how one perceives their motivational climate will be related to the goal orientation in which they develop. With this information it is assumed that one could provide athletes with an environment in which they can receive the most benefits.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Goal orientation consists of both task and ego orientated individuals. Ego oriented individuals strive to beat out others and focus on the social aspect of sport. Task oriented individuals focus more on the skills necessary to compete. They wish to master the particular skill in which they are working. How an individual develops task or ego involvement is greatly related to the environment in which they are subjected to. It is thought that how one perceives their motivational climate will alter whether they become task and/or ego involved. In order to understand how goal orientation and motivational climate affect individuals, it is important to examine those areas in which they are related. In goal orientation, it is necessary to understand the Achievement Goal Theory as well as Task and Ego Orientation. It is also necessary to examine the different research on the Achievement Goal Theory, including the interaction between goal perspectives and motivational climate. Two large areas of motivational climate include a Mastery climate and a Performance climate. It is necessary to examine each climate individually and see how they affect one's goal orientation.

Goal Orientations

Achievement Goal Theory

The achievement goal approach is an important concept of motivation in sport. It comes from an assumption that the individual is goal-driven and that they intend on

succeeding (Roberts, 2001). The Achievement Goal Theory focuses on the goal-directed nature of achievement behavior and suggests that showing competence is the major goal in achievement contexts (Treasure, 1997). Motivation may not alter one's behavior, but it may develop from different perceptions of appropriate goals (Roberts, 1992). How one views their own personal talent and effort is dependent on the achievement goal that they develop for the given activity (Roberts, 1992).

How an athlete defines success and their own level of competence plays an important role in the Achievement Goal Theory. According to Nichols (1989), children will pass developmentally through four levels during their understanding of the concepts of luck, ability and task difficulty. The first level consists of the children viewing effort, ability, and outcome all as the same thing. This is a level in which the children are said to have undifferentiated goal perspectives because of the fact that effort is the same as ability or a successful outcome. They have no concept of how luck is any different from ability or how one task can be more difficult than another. The second level is when the child is beginning to realize that there is a difference between effort and ability. However, they still believe that effort is the major determinant of achieving success. Level three is the transitional stage. This is when children begin to be able to differentiate between ability and effort. The final level is when the child is thought to have a differentiated goal perspective. This stage generally is developed by the age of twelve. The child is clearly able to distinguish between the concepts of ability, luck, effort, and outcome. They are able to understand that an increase in effort and strong performance will be indicative of an increased ability. Once a child makes it through

these four levels it is then when he/she is able to properly develop task and ego orientation.

According to Duda (1989), there are three benefits and perceived values that come from sport participation. They consist of materialistic and individualistic benefits which are intrinsic and come from activity itself, as well as a development of a social responsibility (Duda, 1989). How one perceives these benefits aids in the development of their achievement goals. Achievement goals consist of two major goal perspectives, namely task and ego. The achievement goal theory states that it is the achievement goals that stimulate achievement cognition, affect, and behavior (Treasure, Duda, Hall, Roberts, Ames, & Maehr, 2001). It is also thought that personal developments are a result of these achievement goals. The Achievement Goal Theory emphasizes the cognitive and affective actions of a given behavior (Ames, 1992). The cognitive and affective components are seen as important because they influence the direction and quality of involvement in achievement events as well as influencing one's commitment to learning (Ames, 1992). Achievement goals will provide a background for the individual to interpret their own performance (Treasure, Duda, Hall, et.al., 2001).

Competence is central to achievement and motivation and aids in the development of goals (Biddle, 2001). It is unlikely for someone to choose those tasks in which they demonstrate incompetence, however if one thinks that they are competent at one particular task they are more likely to attempt that task. Achievement goal theories show how success is defined in specific achievement situations and what it will take for a specific individual to succeed in that situation. It is assumed that how one defines

success and what it takes to succeed in an achievement context is related and forms an athlete's attitude towards sport (Treasure, Duda, Hall, et.al., 2001). It is this combination that leads an individual to what they believe in and the development of their own personal theories of success.

Achievement motivation is based on personal definitions of success and views of the causes of success (Biddle, 2001). How one views their ability toward success is a significant determinant of the goal orientations that they will develop. Whether someone is successful or they fail is dependent upon how they view the situation at hand. If the outcome of the event reveals positive self-esteem, such as high effort and ability, then the outcome is generally viewed as successful (Roberts, 2001). However, if the outcome provides negative feedback and an interpretation of low ability or lack of effort, then the outcome is seen as a failure (Roberts, 2001). This idea of succeeding and failing through means of achievement is used in the terms of the goal of behavior.

Through the achievement goal approach, the major focus by the individual in sport is to demonstrate competence and ability. It is through this competence and ability that two conceptions develop and lead to two major goal perspectives (Roberts, 1992). These two major goal perspectives found in achievement contexts are termed ego and task involvement.

Ability

According to the Achievement Goal Theory, the individual's goal of action is to demonstrate competence and it is through this competence that their perception of success

becomes a central variable (Roberts, Treasure, & Balague, 1997). Generally one determines their competence based on their ability. If they are able to perform successfully then they are competent at that particular task. One's development of the concept of ability is a process of differentiating through different concepts of luck, difficulty of the task, and the effort needed from ability (Nicholls, 1984). It is assumed that by the time a child reaches the age of twelve, they are able to differentiate between the types of ability. There are two concepts of ability, undifferentiated and differentiated (Nicholls, 1989). These two types are different because, undifferentiated, is based on the idea that ability and effort are not differentiated by the individual and the other states that it is differentiated by the individual (Nicholls, 1989). It is these concepts of ability that determine one's affective and cognitive responses to achievement (Nicholls, 1984). These two concepts of ability are embedded within two statistically independent achievement goal orientations. They become the main determinant in which an individual assesses success in an achievement context (Roberts, Treasure, & Balague, 1997). These two goal orientations act as dispositional tendencies to view success according to the two concepts of ability (Roberts, Treasure, & Balague, 1997). The two goal orientations are known as task and ego orientation.

Vlachopoulos and Biddle (1997) investigated the likely determinants of achievement-related affects in physical education. They collected their data from 1,070 male and female students ranging from 11-16 years who attended regular physical education classes. The TEOSQ, Physical Self-Perception Profile, and Causal Dimension Scale II Modified for Children were used in this study. Vlachopoulos and Biddle (1997)

found that in relation to goal orientation and success perception, task orientation was positively associated with success perception. Perceived ability did not influence this association. The reason for this is due to the fact that task oriented individuals do not have to demonstrate the adequacy of their ability (Vlachopoulos & Biddle, 1997). It is thought that one's level of perceived ability would influence their relationship between ego orientation and success perception, however, this was not true in this study.

Vlachopoulos and Biddle (1997) found no association between perceived ability and competence. Nicholls (1989), suggests that those who think they have high ability and are ego oriented will try hard and perform well only during easy tasks because they should succeed. They are also known to not spend any time on difficult tasks.

Vlachopoulos and Biddle (1997) suggest that this may be the reason for their findings associated with ego orientation.

Task Orientation

According to Duda and Nicholls (1992), task orientation is when success is based on the experience of personal improvement, learning insight, or mastering the demands of a task. Individuals with a task goal orientation use self-referenced criteria to judge their own competence and typically focus on learning, improving their abilities, and mastering the tasks which they perform (Li & Harmer, 1996). It is also stated by Nicholls and colleagues (1985), that task oriented perspective has a strong relationship with education as an end in itself and that education meant being socially committed, having commitment to learning and understanding and mastering material. It was stated by Duda

(1989), that this goal perspective is related to the view that the sport should foster honesty and respect, enhance self-esteem, and teach people to try their best, cooperate and be good citizens and foster social responsibilities, lifetime health, and skills. These individuals are hard working and focused on learning and doing their best. Hard work is equal to satisfaction and success is demonstrated by improvement. Errors are not threatening and obstacles help in describing whether they need to put forth more effort or go about things in a different manner. These individuals will put forth all of their effort in order to learn a task. It is also noted that task oriented individuals will choose tasks that are moderately challenging and try to master them. They tend to feel more intrinsic satisfaction than those who work at a different type of goal orientation (Givvin, 2001).

Task oriented individuals have demonstrated positive aspects in both school and sport. According to White and Zellner (1996), task oriented individuals are hard working, they try to understand information rather than memorize it, and they work well with their classmates. Because these individuals are hard working they have a tendency to receive positive reactions from their efforts. They experience intrinsic enjoyment from the activity, satisfaction from working hard at the task, and they take pride in their accomplishments regardless of the outcome (Duda, 1992). Duda (1989) found that task oriented goal perspectives were linked to a view that sport should socialize people into being honest, respectful, and concerned citizens in society. Individuals who are task oriented generally experience positive rewards and values through their achievement goals.

Duda (1989), looked at 128 males and 193 females that participated in varsity

interscholastic athletics. She examined the relationship between an athlete's goal perspective and their perceived purpose of sport. The results were based on the athletes' responses to the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and Purpose of Sport Questionnaire (PSQ). She found that task orientation was positively correlated with mastery/cooperation, an active lifestyle, becoming a good citizen, and an increase in self-esteem. It was also stated by Duda (1989), that athletes high in task orientation thought that sport should teach the value of trying one's best, cooperating with others, and following the rules of the game. The athletes in this study showed positive effects related to task orientation.

White, Duda, and Keller (1998), examined 192 youth sport participants. They looked at 100 males and 92 females involved in soccer, swimming, basketball, and ice hockey. Using the TEOSQ and the Perceived Purpose of Sport Questionnaire (PPSQ) they assessed athletes' views concerning the function of sport involvement and the consequences of athletic participation. In relationship to task orientation, they found that individuals who scored high in task orientation tended to perceive that the important purposes of sport involvement included: enhanced self-esteem and sport ethos, good citizenship, mastery/cooperation, and being physically active. Task oriented children also saw sports as a way to become a respectful and productive individual. They found that males saw sports as a way of increasing popularity and enhancing their competitiveness and desire to win. Females in this study, however, were more task oriented and showed different beliefs towards the purpose of sport.

Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992), examined the relationship of perceived

motivational climate to intrinsic motivation and beliefs about success. They collected data on 105 male high school varsity basketball players by means of the TEOSQ and Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ). In terms of task orientation, they found that this dispositional goal orientation was a main predictor of enjoyment in sport. Task orientation was also the main predictor of effort and perceived competence among the athletes in this study (Seifriz et.al., 1992). When compared with ego orientation, task orientation was the only significant predictor that effort was the cause of success. Ego orientation predicted that ability rather than effort was the cause of success.

Treasure and Roberts (1994), provided results suggesting that task orientation was likely to provide adaptive cognitive and affective patterns in sport. They examined 330 children of both genders by means of the Perception of Success Questionnaire (POSQ). Their results indicated that task orientation was related to pro-social and adaptive achievement beliefs about sports. Task orientation led to the development of beliefs suggesting that sport leads to personal development. In these athletes, the beliefs were present suggesting that sport aided in the development of self-discipline and the ability to cooperate with others. There was also some suggestion that task orientation can lead to a commitment to a healthy lifestyle. It is assumed that adaptive patterns are a reflection of using motivation and/or effort to achieve success in sport (Treasure & Roberts, 1994). The results of this study indicate that adaptive patterns are positively related to task orientations.

Paulson (1999), looked at NCAA basketball players and cross-country runners in

comparing their goal orientation and perceived motivational climate. After having each athlete complete the TEOSQ, he found differences in task and ego orientation between the two groups of athletes. Basketball players had a slightly higher degree of task involvement score than cross-country runners did. (Task-CC= 4.18, Task-BB= 4.27) Paulson (1999) suggested that this difference may be due to the fact that basketball is a team activity and cross-country is more of an individual activity. Those who participate in team activities may be stronger in task involvement because they tend to focus more on the team as whole rather than individual improvements. However, it could also be argued that individual athletics could produce task involved athletes because they are competing to improve their own scores.

When looking at adolescent soccer players, Ebbeck and Becker (1994), found information dealing perceived parent goal orientation and a players task orientation. The TEOSQ was administered to 166 male and female soccer athletes. “Higher scores on perceived soccer competence, perceived parent task orientation, and perceived mastery climate, as well as lower scores on perceived performance climate, were associated with a higher player task orientation” (Ebbeck & Becker, 1994). This indicated that one’s background might affect their goal orientations. This is due to perceived parent goal orientation being the dominant predictor of the player’s orientation. How one’s parents perceive goal orientation greatly affects how their children will respond to sport.

In summary, task orientation has a positive, adaptive effect on athletes. Those who develop a high task orientation tend to be focused on the skills at hand, which develops an athlete dedicated to learning what is necessary to improve in the activity.

Research suggests that those with high task orientation tend to enjoy the activities in which they are participating in.

Ego Orientation

Ego orientation is defined as those individuals who tend to orient themselves to achieve a positive evaluation of their current abilities and performance from important others (Li & Harmer, 1996). These individuals want to achieve superiority over others. Perceptions of demonstrated ability entail the comparison of one's performance and exerted effort to the performance and effort exerted of referent others. To these individuals learning and personal skill development is not needed to improve (Chi & Duda, 1995). It is mentioned by Givvin (2001), that ego oriented individuals may be in a position to avoid their own deficiencies. Little effort is used in achieving success because they only attempt those tasks which they will succeed in. Challenges are avoided so that they can attempt a task that will assure them a high-competence evaluation because they view a loss as the inability to succeed. Errors present anxiety because they represent a threat to the judgment of their own competence, therefore they only attempt those tasks that will not present errors (Givvin, 2001). Rather than putting forth all of their effort and trying to become their best like those who are task oriented, ego oriented individuals only attempt those activities, which they know they can out perform their competition in.

In several cases, ego orientation has been linked to the belief that external factors like luck, taking illegal advantage or cheating, and superior athletic ability are causes of success in sport (Newton & Duda, 1993). When there is a greater emphasis placed on an

ego orientation, there is greater belief that sports should increase one's social status and teach people how to survive and get ahead of others (Duda, 1989). Individuals who are highly ego oriented are more likely than task oriented individuals to take part in these types of activities and beliefs about success. When an individual who is ego oriented has a low perceived ability, negative effects can arise. An ego-oriented athlete that develops a low perception of ability will exhibit a maladaptive motivational pattern. They will expect to fail at intermediate normative tasks. Therefore, they will feel incompetent and develop low self perception. This low self perception can in some cases lead to increased anxiety or the with-drawl of attention from certain tasks (Nicholls, 1989). Ego oriented individuals believe that success is based on ability, if they are lacking ability they can take on the belief that they will never be successful. Ego oriented individuals with low perceived ability will see very few opportunities to become successful in sport. Those who do see themselves as competent will have a high level of ego orientation (Duda & Nicholls, 1992). This type of belief surfaces many maladaptive behaviors. Maladaptive behaviors consist of seeking easy tasks, reducing their effort, and giving up when faced with difficulty (Treasure, 1997). These individuals are susceptible to stress and anxiety with competition and they also tend to show a lack in effort and persistence (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). There is the possibility of athletes doubting their own ability and becoming angry and disgusted with themselves when success is not there (White & Zellner, 1996). Whether they have ability or not, if they are not successful they will begin to question their own competence.

In the study by Duda (1989), she examined male and female athletes to determine

if there was a relationship between task and ego orientation and the perceived purpose of sport. She found that ego orientation was positively correlated to the belief that the purpose of sport was competition, to obtain a high status career, increase self-esteem, and for social status/getting ahead (Duda, 1989). Ego orientation was positively related to the belief that sport is a reflection of extrinsic benefits and personal gains. Duda (1989), also found that ego orientation was a positive predictor of the view that sports should aid in getting a person accepted into college, moving up in their job, and aid in earning more money. A majority of these positive correlations of ego orientation were direct opposites of the beliefs of those who were task oriented.

In a study of NCAA basketball players and cross-country runners, Paulson (1999), found that cross-country runners had a slightly higher degree of ego involvement in comparison to basketball players. (Ego-CC= 2.63, Ego-BB= 2.40) A two-tailed t-test showed an insignificant ($p=.10$) difference between the two groups. Although the numbers were not significant there was a low difference between the two athletic teams. Cross country runners ($M=2.63$) had a slightly higher degree of ego involvement in comparison to basketball players ($M=2.40$) (Paulson, 1999). It is possible that the cross-country runners scored slightly higher in ego involvement due to their individual efforts that are put forth in their sport. Cross-country runners tend to concentrate on their own performance and beating others rather than working as a team with other team members.

It was stated by Ebbeck and Becker (1994), that the background of an individual determines if they tend to be ego involved. When looking at 166 male and female adolescent soccer athletes, they found that those who scored higher on perceived soccer

competence, perceived parent task orientation, and particularly perceived ego orientation were primarily associated with a higher level of player ego orientation. This indicates that if someone is brought up to be ego-oriented these values will continue on into the type of athlete they become.

Goal orientation is derived from the Achievement Goal Theory and consists of task orientation and ego orientation. If one is task involved they tend to focus on the skills and are concerned with doing well as a team rather than individually. Ego orientation, however, is self-oriented and can have maladaptive effects. The individual strives at doing better than those in which he/she is competing against and success is defined through ability.

Goal Profiles

Goal profiles are applied to examine efforts of both goal orientations with the athletes focus of interest in mind. These goal profiles are based on a median score on both the task and ego scales. Four classifications are formed: high task/high ego, high task/low ego, low task/high ego, and low task/low ego (Duda, 2001, pg. 139). It is through these goal profiles that one can assess how to properly motivate an athlete. Someone who is high task/high ego is most likely very motivated. These individuals are focused on doing their best and mastering the task at hand, while still having the competitive edge needed in elite sports. An area of concern is when individuals develop low task/low ego orientations. These individuals are less concerned with demonstrating ability and have a lower self-esteem about their ability. Another area of concern is those

who are high ego/low task. These individuals are constantly comparing themselves to others based on ability, when in fact their ability is not as high as others are. An individual's level of motivation is affected by several factors. In terms of goal orientations, it is not always as simple as task or ego, but more likely a combination of the two.

A goal profile approach is often adopted to separately examine the effects of task and ego orientation in order to adequately address their consequences. Several researchers have incorporated a mean split of task and ego orientation scores to divide samples into four goal profile groups because there are no published, population-specific norms for the TEOSQ (Carr & Weigand, 2002). Based on the above facts, Carr and Weigand (2002), used goal profiles to test the influence of significant others on the goal orientations of children in physical education by means of the TEOSQ.

In a study by Bar-Eli, Tenenbaum, Kudar, and Kataline (1997), they used goal profiles in conjunction with the TEOSQ to determine aerobic performance under different goal orientations and different goal conditions. His sample consisted of males with a mean age of 19 who were in military high school but were not athletes per se. Upon completion of the questionnaire, the subjects were divided into one of four groups according to their scores on the task and ego items. The four groups consisted of low ego-high task, low ego-low task, high ego-high task, and high ego-low task. Mean scores were used to place the subjects into the groups. Subjects were then placed into one of the four groups based upon their mean scores in task and ego orientation. Their results indicated that this goal profile approach provided more sensitivity in distinguishing

individuals differing on ego and task orientation than a simple high/low task and ego orientation.

Hodge and Petlichkoff (2000) suggest that goal profiles may not be accurate due to the idea that the Achievement Goal Theory does not relate to individuals who are high in both orientations, low in both, or mixed. They suggest that because task and ego orientation have different cognitive and motivational implications, when goal profiles are used they might not have the same independent effect of being considered high in task or ego (Hodge & Petlichkoff, 2000). The mean split or median procedure may not reflect reality due to the fact that those scores that are close to the mean are falsely referred to as high or low when they could in fact be average scores. Hodge and Petlichkoff (2000) argue that goal profiles eliminate the attempt to measure average responses on the task and ego orientation scale. Rather than implementing the goal profile approach, they have suggested using a cluster analysis. This would develop subgroups that would fit satisfactorily with the data by emphasizing the differences between the groups and taking the emphasis away from the differences within the groups (Hodge & Petlichkoff, 2000).

Interactionist Approach

An interactionist perspective that integrates goal orientation and perception of motivational climate is one in which goal orientation may be viewed as an individual variable that differs and that will determine the probability of adopting a central goal of action and displaying a particular behavior pattern, while situational factors are seen as potentially altering these probabilities. In a sport context where the performance or

mastery oriented cues are weak an individual's pre-disposition toward an ego or task goal orientation should hold strong. In contrast, if the situational cues are strong in favor of either performance or mastery oriented climates, dispositions may be overridden. The stronger the disposition, the less likely it is to be overridden by situational cues or the stronger the situational cues necessary to over ride it.

Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992), looked at this in a sport context. They examined the degree to which intrinsic motivation and attributional beliefs, those attributed to an outside factor, were a function of perceptions of the motivational climate, dispositional goal orientation, or a combination of the two variables in high school male basketball players. They found that attributional beliefs were best predicted by an individual's goal orientation. A task orientation predicted the belief that effort causes success, in contrast, ego orientation predicted the belief that ability causes success (Seifriz et.el, 1992). Intrinsic motivation was predicted by both perceptions of the motivational climate and goal orientations. While perceptions of the motivational climate and dispositional goal orientation emerged as predictors of enjoyment, dispositional goal orientation was the predominant predictor of reported effort exerted and perceived competence in basketball, in contrast, motivational climate significantly predicted tension in basketball (Seifriz et. el, 1992).

Gender Differences in Goal Orientation

The studies that have compared goal orientations of males and females are not consistent in their findings. Although many researchers would like to prove that there is a

significant difference between genders, there is not enough evidence to make this point valid. It has been said that there is some evidence that men and women differ in their goal orientations and that women tend to be more task oriented than males due to the way females develop their level of competence and view their success and failure experiences (Duda, 1989).

Duda (1989) looked at 321 high school athletes to examine gender effects on goal orientation. They were administered two questionnaires, the TEOSQ and the PSQ to see if there was a difference between males and females in their goal perspectives. Females were significantly higher in task orientation than males and males were significantly higher in ego orientation than females. It was concluded that females perceived mastery/cooperation to be a more important purpose of sport than males did, not because they were only task oriented. Also, male students are said to believe competitiveness, social status, and higher status career opportunities are more important purposes of sport participation than female students did. These conclusions suggest that there may be some distinct differences in the way that female and male high school athletes view their level of competence and take in their positive and negative experiences. The differences found between genders are consistent with the literature on sport attitudes and values. Females saw athletics as a way of working with others and saw the importance of trying their best more than males did. Males, by contrast, perceived that a major purpose of athletics was to become competitive and win at all costs (Duda, 1989). The major difference seen between males and females in the high school setting is that males are more focused on the recognition and popularity that participation in sport brings, whereas females are not.

Females felt their parents were task oriented and emphasized learning new skills without worrying about failure, whereas males felt their parents created more of an ego-oriented climate (Givvin, 2001). In other words, girls more than boys perceived that their parents created for them a task-involving climate, one that focused on improvement and self-satisfaction during learning. However when Givvin (2001) examined gender differences in goal orientations, as measured by the TEOSQ, her results were not significant. The questionnaire was given to 90 swimmers, (35 boys and 55 girls). Differences between genders for the TEOSQ scores were not significant. Males and females did not differ significantly in task and ego orientations. But, even though the data concerning gender differences is not consistent, there was strong support for girls' being more task oriented than boys and boys' being more ego oriented than girls (Givvin, 2001).

Maday (2000) examined goal orientations in 175 college male and female runners in Division III institutions to examine relationships between goal orientation and runner satisfaction. Each of the participants was administered the TEOSQ and Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). There were no significant differences between male and female scores on the TEOSQ. Those who were higher in task orientation showed higher satisfaction with their individual performance, ability, strategy, team task contribution, and team social contribution. Those higher in ego orientation showed lower satisfaction with the same factors (Maday, 2000). Even though there was no significant difference between males and females, the study did show the relationship between personal satisfaction and task and ego orientations.

Throughout the literature it is evident that there have been several studies looking at goal orientations between genders of all different age groups. However, there is not much consistency when it comes to determining whether males are more ego oriented than females or if females are more task oriented than males. The variation in results may be due to the type of sport they are involved in as well as their individual background. There is enough information to lead one to believe that this is the case, but more research needs to be done in order to settle this theory.

Level of Competition

There is some question as to whether or not age and level of competition effect how athletes set their goals. Research has not shown if time plays a role in determining task and ego orientations. Whether athletes who are task oriented were ego oriented as a child or vice versa is not known.

In a study looking at goal orientations in youth athletes, White, Duda, and Keller (1998) looked at task and ego orientations and perceived purposes of sport in youth sport participants. They gave out the TEOSQ and PPSQ to 192 youth sport participants. Specifically the sample included 100 males and 92 females involved in a variety of organized sports. The youth sport athletes in this study were primarily task oriented. The overall mean for the task orientation subscale was 4.19 +/- .59 and for the ego orientation subscale 2.5 +/- .77 (White, Duda, & Keller, 1998). However there were no significant differences between males and females in task orientation or ego orientation. When the results of the PPSQ were calculated there was a significant difference between males and

females. This indicates that even though there is no significant difference between ego and task orientation, males do tend to perceive sport as more of a vehicle to heighten status and popularity with peers and encourage competitiveness more than their female classmates do. All of these behaviors are indicative of an ego-oriented behavior even though the tests were not significant.

Upon looking at the data of 230 male and female elite sport athletes, Ommundsen and Roberts (1996) were able to come up with a conclusion based on the goal orientations and perceived purposes of training in elite athletes. They administered the PSQ that had been developed as a sport specific measure of ego and task goal perspectives. The results of this study confirm that elite athletes see the purposes of their involvement in sport as corresponding to their achievement goal perspectives. High task orientation scores were not associated with those who participated in sport for the reason of socializing with friends and others. High task scores did not prove to indicate that sports were viewed as a means to attain a higher social status (Ommundsen & Roberts, 1996). Ego involved athletes and team sport athletes, on the other hand, saw social status as the purpose for taking part in sports. This study confirms that the research of others on the relationship of ego and task orientations and purposes of sport.

Roberts and Lochbaum (1993) looked at 182 male and 114 female high school athletes competing in at least one sport. They used the TEOSQ to identify goal orientations and perceptions of the sport experience. In this study they found that high school adolescents have goal orientations that parallel their beliefs about causes of success, competition, and practice strategies, practice benefits, and enjoyment in sport

(Roberts & Lochbaum, 1993). They did not, however, find any significant differences between the two types of goal orientations and gender differences.

Paulson (1999) compared goal orientations and perceived motivational climates of NCAA basketball players and cross-country runners. His participants included 66 female basketball players and 92 female cross country runners. Each participant completed both the TEOSQ and PMCSQ to describe their goal orientations and perceptions of sport. After analyzing all of the collected data, he found no significant differences between basketball players and cross-country runners related to the degree of task involvement and ego involvement. However, after reviewing the collected data it was noted that both teams scored higher in the questions that were task related than those that were ego related. (Task-CC= 4.18, Task-BB= 4.27; Ego-CC= 2.63, Ego-BB= 2.40) Even though Paulson (1999) did not include this in this study, upon reviewing his results it is noticeable that the teams were both more task oriented.

White and Zellner (1996), looked at athletes of several different age levels. They included 251 athletes, specifically high school varsity athletes, NCAA Division I intercollegiate athletes, and individuals that were in organized college-age recreational sports. They were all administered the TEOSQ in determining if there were any differences in goal orientation involvement. The data found that high school athletes scored higher in ego orientation than the intercollegiate athletes. Also, compared to the intercollegiate males and high school females, the college-aged recreational males reported that effort led to success in sport. This is indicative that these groups focus on task involved activities more than ego involved activities. The information in this study

leads one to believe that there may be some noticeable differences between athletes of different competitive levels.

Collegiate athletes should be higher in ego orientation than high school athletes due to their experience. White and Duda (1994) suggested that those in higher levels of competitive sport should be more ego oriented than those involved in a less competitive team. When comparing goal orientations of athletes participating in different competitive levels they found that this was true (White & Duda, 1994). The more skillful the athlete becomes the better chances he/she has of developing high ego orientation without the maladaptive effects because they have the talent to back them up.

Motivational Climate

The Achievement Goal Theory claims that perceived causes of success will vary depending on how the individual perceives their motivational climate. There is a strong emphasis on the importance of the motivational climate because literature suggests that it can influence one's development of motivation. Two main climates have been identified by Ames (1992) through work in school classrooms. These two climates are termed mastery and performance (Ames, 1992). Different settings can increase or decrease the likelihood of a particular achievement goal. Ames (1992), for example, looked at students participating in a Physical Education class. Students can be complemented only when they demonstrate superiority in comparison to other students, and students can be seen as role models when they show high athletic ability. This type of climate can be referred to as a performance climate (Ames, 1992). On the other hand, students may also

be encouraged to show self-improvement and complemented when they show high effort regardless of the outcome. This type of classroom can be labeled as a mastery climate (Ames, 1992).

The premise of research from a situational perspective is that the nature of children's experiences and how these experiences influence the degree to which a mastery and/or performance climate is viewed as noticeable within the situation (Treasure, 1997). It is this belief that is assumed to determine the behaviors in which children adopt either adaptive achievement strategies in mastery-oriented situations and maladaptive achievement strategies in performance-oriented situations (Treasure, 1997).

A mastery climate is one that is thought to encourage positive affect towards a class, more adaptive learning strategies, and behaviors that seek challenges among its students (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988). Athletes who are involved in a mastery climate tend to show more effort-based beliefs of success in sport, more positive perceptions of their teacher's behavior towards lower achievers, more favorable opinions about physical activity, and less worries about performance than those who are subjected to a performance climate (Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992).

A performance climate encourages normative or other-referenced standards of success that generally develop lower perceived ability in students who tend to have outcomes that end in failure (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988). The performance oriented climate is most important in higher competitive levels and generally leads to an increase in one's ego involvement (Duda, 1992). Treasure (1997), found that a high performance/low mastery climate led to students viewing success according to ability, a

negative attitude towards class, and an increase in boredom.

Treasure (1997), looked at 119 female and 114 male children in elementary school. They were given the Classroom Achievement Goals Questionnaire (CAGQ), to determine their perception of their motivational climate and their cognitive and affective responses. He found a strong positive relationship between elementary school children and their perception of a mastery oriented motivational climate in a physical education class to adaptive learning strategies. In a general correlation he found that those involved in a high mastery/moderate performance climate showed a positive attitude towards the class, high perceived ability, belief in the thought that effort and ability were the causes of success, and a greater degree of satisfaction (Treasure, 1997).

Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992), surveyed 105 male high school varsity basketball players with the PMCSQ. They found that athletes who were exposed to a mastery oriented climate and became more mastery-focused tended to report that they felt that trying hard was rewarded, they were encouraged by their coaches, and every player had an equally important role as a team member. They found that a performance-oriented climate led athletes to perceive that their teammates were trying to outdo each other, mistakes lead to punishment, and only the talented players would get recognition. This is thought to be maladaptive motivational beliefs about how to achieve success in sport.

Walling, Duda and Chi (1993), found results supporting that of Seifriz et. al. Their study examined the construct and predictive validity of the PMCSQ by means of 169 athletes with a mean age of 14.2. They found that perceptions of a mastery climate were associated with greater reported effort, more enjoyment from sports, greater

satisfaction in one's team, less anxiety about their performance, and the belief that if they tried hard they would achieve success (Walling, et.al, 1993). Performance climates were linked to greater levels of worry, less satisfaction from being part of a team, and the belief that the cause of success is ability (Walling, et. al, 1993). It is assumed that developing in a performance oriented climate could lead to motivational difficulties. Results from these two studies would indicate that athletes would have positive feedback and results from participating in a sport that was based on a mastery oriented environment.

Treasure and Roberts (1998), examined the relationship between female adolescents' achievement goal orientations, perceptions of the motivational climate, and beliefs about success and sources of satisfaction in basketball. They looked at 274 females ranging in age from 10-18 years who were participating in a basketball camp. They used the POSQ and the PMSQ2. Canonical correlations revealed that when perceiving the motivational climate to be mastery oriented, the athletes thought effort was a significant cause of success. This was consistent with the Achievement Goal Theory as well as previous research indicating that when a mastery oriented climate is present, athletes will think that success is a result of trying hard (Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). It was also argued that those individuals who perceived a mastery oriented climate received more adaptive motivational beliefs about success due to the fact that they believed that trying hard was a strong indicator of success. Another significant interaction found in this study came from the interaction of task orientation and a mastery oriented climate. Task goal orientation interacted with a mastery oriented climate to show satisfaction through a mastery experience. When an individual was task

oriented, a mastery oriented climate complemented their focus on task involvement (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). Another significant finding was that even those who were not strongly task oriented were still positively effected by the mastery climate. “When the athlete displayed low task orientation, perception of a strong mastery climate appeared to override the weaker goal orientation, serving to maintain the importance of task involvement” (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). It is evident throughout this study that a mastery climate does in fact complement high task orientation and is successful in providing adaptive motivational beliefs for athletes.

Treasure and Roberts (1998) also found that when the motivational climate was perceived to be performance oriented, the athletes believed that deception and normative ability were the causes of success (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). This belief about success may or may not produce motivational difficulties. For those who have high ability and do in fact perform better than others, this view of success may prove to not be harmful. However, for those who perform poorly and due to this begin to doubt their own ability, this belief will have negative effects on their achievement behaviors (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). They also found the same interaction between ego orientation and performance climates as they did between task orientation and mastery climates. When an individual perceives a high performance oriented climate and is highly ego oriented, this is strongly the cause of viewing ability as the cause of success (Treasure & Roberts, 1998). Unlike mastery climate, however, a performance oriented climate did not effect their ego orientation. If the athlete did not have a strong ego orientation, a high performance oriented climate did not alter their beliefs. This may be due to the cues not being strong

enough to alter one's level of involvement.

Relationship Between Motivational Climate and Goal Orientations

The situational cues in one's motivational climate are known to influence their type of goal orientation in which they adapt. Differences among individuals in ego or task orientation may be from socialization through different task and/or ego situations, by means of the home, classroom, or sport experience (Roberts, Spink, & Pemberton, 1999). Due to these experiences, the individual may take on the behaviors related to each achievement goal. As soon as a child is old enough to distinguish the difference between exerted effort and ability, task and ego-involved goal states become dependent upon several factors (White & Duda, 1994). Socialization and different experiences in social environments that reinforce superior ability or learning and personal mastery will affect one's degree of ego and task orientation (Whit & Duda, 1994). It is very important that one understands, however, that a goal orientation is not a trait in which someone inherits (Roberts, et.al., 1999). A goal orientation is subject to change depending on the individual and how they process the information at hand. This is why it is assumed that one's motivational climate can in fact alter their goal orientation since they are subject to change. Nicholls (1989), states that dispositional goal orientations and perceived motivational climate are two parts of motivation that combine to alter achievement behavior. However, it is also thought that dispositional goal orientations and one's perceived motivational climate are separate constructs (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). "Is it that achievement goal orientations color the perception of the motivational climate, or

does the motivational climate moderate the effect of achievement goal orientations and subsequently affect whether one becomes task or ego involved” (Roberts, pg. 46, 2001). It is suggested by Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) that there is a relationship between motivational climate and goal orientation in high school male basketball players. If a players are dispositionally task orientated and perceive the team atmosphere to be characterized as a mastery-oriented climate, the probability of their enjoyment participation in basketball is enhanced (Seifriz, et.al, 1992). They suggest that over time, one’s perceived motivational climate may have increasing influence on their reported exerted effort and perception of ability (Seifriz, et.al, 1992). In their study, players who perceived mastery-oriented climates tended to be dispositionally task oriented and there was a slight positive association between perceptions of performance-oriented climate and ego orientation (Seifriz, et.al, 1992). It has been suggested that increasing one’s exposure to a specific motivational climate may alter one’s dispositional goal perspective (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1989).

Both mastery and performance motivational climates can have an effect on an individual’s goal orientation. It is suggested that a strong mastery climate may complement a strong task orientation. Research also suggests that it is possible to override a strong performance climate even if the individual has a weak ego orientation. This information can prove to be effective in developing well-rounded athletes. Coaches and parents can use this information to decide which motivational climate best suits the athletes that they are working with.

Goal orientations differ among males and females of all competitive levels.

Whether or not the differences are significant enough to lead one to say that one gender is more ego oriented than the other or that one age group is more task oriented than the other is not clear. More research is needed in order to determine these differences and prove the differences to be valid and significant. It is the purpose of this study to see if there are any differences among males and females of both high school and collegiate age levels. Research suggest that females tend to be higher in task orientation than males and males tend to be higher in ego orientation than females (Duda, 1989). It is also suggested that the sport and competitive level make a difference in goal orientation. The findings from White and Zellner (1996), suggest that there may be a difference among different levels of competition after surveying both high school and collegiate athletes. While both groups were focused on task orientation, it was indicative that perhaps high school athletes could be higher in ego orientation than collegiate athletes (White & Zellner, 1996).

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This study was performed to determine the differences in goal orientation across genders in both collegiate and high school settings. The purpose was also to determine if the motivational climate was related to the athletes' goal orientations. It was hypothesized that males would be more ego-involved whereas females would be more task-involved. The second hypothesis was that collegiate athletes would be more ego-oriented and high school athletes would be more task-oriented, according to Nicholls' developmental model of goal orientation (Nicholls, 1989). A third hypothesis was that the motivational climate would have an effect on goal orientations. Those who are exposed to a performance-oriented climate will be more ego-oriented and those who are exposed to a mastery climate will be more task-oriented.

Subjects

Participants were male and female basketball players on collegiate and high school teams. Institutions were selected based on convenience of the investigator. A total of six high schools were selected: Lincoln-Way Central High School, New Lenox, IL., South Putnam High School, Greencastle, IN., Eminence High School, Eminence, IN., Robinson High School, Robinson, IL., Pana High School, Pana, IL., and Mattoon High School, Mattoon, IL. There were seven colleges selected from the Ohio Valley Conference and consisted of: Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, IL., Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, TN., Tennessee Technical Institution, Cookeville, TN.,

Tennessee State University, Nashville, TN., Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond, KY., Morehead State University, Morehead, KY., and South East Missouri State University, Cape Girardeau, MO.

Instruments

The questionnaires used in this study were the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda & Nicholls, 1989) and the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ) (Seifritz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). The TEOSQ was used to determine goal orientations during sport participation and the PMCSQ was used to determine the motivational climate.

The questions on the TEOSQ were based on when the athletes feel they are most successful in sports. There were thirteen questions that were either task involved or ego involved. The participants were asked to rank their feelings of success related to sport on a five point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). A higher scale score represented a stronger goal orientation on both of the subscales. The statements relating to each orientation in the TEOSQ can be seen in a copy of the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire, which is located in Appendix A.

The thirteen statements in the TEOSQ were either task involved or ego involved. The participants were asked to circle one through five based on how strongly they agree with the statement. The responses were then tallied and divided by the number of task or ego involved statements. There were seven task involved questions and six ego involved questions.

In a study of a multi-sample confirmatory factor analysis of the TEOSQ, it was noted that the internal reliability of the two TEOSQ scales had been found to be adequate (Chi & Duda, 1995). Chi and Duda (1995) looked at four different groups of students and found that when using the TEOSQ, the two scales demonstrated acceptable internal consistency across the samples. Cronbach's alpha for the composite score of the task orientation scale ranged from .71-.77 among the four groups (Chi & Duda, 1995). When examining the ego orientation scale, the observed reliability coefficients ranged from .80-.87 (Chi & Duda, 1995). Another study done to assess the validity of the TEOSQ also confirmed its reliability. "Evidence for its validity and reliability suggests that researchers can confidently use the TEOSQ in their inquiry of achievement goal orientation in sports" (Li, Harmer, & Duncan, 1998). According to White and Zellner (1996), the TEOSQ has consistently shown high levels of reliability and validity and has also confirmed that there was an existence of two orthogonal goal orientations, task and ego. There was also an internal consistency based on Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha ($\alpha = .92 + .86$ respectively) (White & Zellner, 1996).

The PMCSQ was developed from the Classroom Achievement Goals Questionnaire. This new questionnaire was started from relevant items in the Classroom Achievement Goals Questionnaire. The items were assess players' perceptions of the degree to which their teams' motivational climates were focused on mastery and performance goals (Seifritz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). The forty items on Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire were based on how players felt when they were playing on a team over the course of the season. The introduction for each question

was “On this team...” and the responses were based on a five point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). A higher scale score represents a stronger motivational climate on both of the subscales. The forty items used in this questionnaire can be viewed in the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (Appendix B).

Procedures

The institutions were selected on the basis of their staffs' willingness to participate and the availability of the athletes. The method of distributing the questionnaires differed among institutions based on their location.

At Lincoln-Way Central, Pana, and Mattoon High School, the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire and the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire were given to the athletic director. The athletic director was also given instructions on how to administer the questionnaires properly. He then handed out the questionnaires to the athletes and collected the completed forms.

The remaining high schools were given the questionnaires through their athletic trainers. The athletic trainers were to distribute the questionnaires to both the male and female teams at their high schools and collect them upon completion. After the questionnaires were completed, they were returned by mail. If the completed questionnaires were not returned within three weeks, a follow up call was made to the institution.

The Eastern Illinois University women and men's basketball teams were

distributed the questionnaires by the investigator. The TEOSQ and PMCSQ were administered to the athletes and they were then to answer the questions and return the completed questionnaires prior to leaving practice.

At the other six colleges, the questionnaires were administered through their school athletic trainer. The athletic trainers were given the questionnaires when they came to Eastern Illinois University to compete. Two of the institutions, Eastern Kentucky and Morehead, were given questionnaires from an Eastern Illinois athletic trainer when they traveled there to compete. The athletic trainer from each institution was asked to distribute the questionnaires to both the men's and women's basketball teams and then collect them once they were completed. They were each provided a self addressed stamped envelope to return the completed questionnaires.

Test packets included an informed consent detailing the purpose of the study (Appendix C), instructions for administering the questionnaires (Appendix D), a demographic page (Appendix E), and the TEOSQ and PMCSQ in counterbalance order to prevent a response bias. They were informed that they were to complete the TEOSQ and PMCSQ to the best of their knowledge based on how they felt when participating in sports.

Data Analysis

After questionnaires were returned, individual and group means were calculated for task and ego involvement scores on the TEOSQ. The scores are based on specific task questions and ego questions and how high each question was rated. The individual

responses were added for the task oriented questions and divided by seven and the responses to the ego oriented questions were added and divided by six. The scoring scheme for the TEOSQ is shown in Table 1. The means were then compared by gender and competition level. Comparisons were made between collegiate male teams and collegiate female teams, collegiate male teams and male high school teams, collegiate female teams and female high school teams, and male high school teams and female high school teams. There were also comparisons made by total high school athletes versus total collegiate athletes and all males versus all females.

In order to test the first two hypotheses, that males would be more ego oriented whereas females would be more task oriented and that high school athletes would be more task oriented whereas collegiate athletes would be more ego oriented, two-way MANOVA was performed.

Individual and group means were calculated for mastery and performance oriented climate scores on the PMCSQ. The scores were based on performance or mastery oriented climate questions and how high each question was rated. The individual responses for both the mastery and performance climate were added and divided by twenty. To test the third hypotheses, that one's motivational climate would be related to their goal orientation a two way MANOVA was performed. This was done to determine if any significant differences existed based on gender in goal orientations due to a mastery or performance climate.

To examine whether there was a relationship between motivational climate and goal orientation, a Pearson-Product Moment Correlation was performed. This was done

Table 1

Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire's System of ScoringI feel most successful in sport when.....

NOTE: Likert Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1	I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.	1 2 3 4 5
2	I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more	1 2 3 4 5
3	I can do better than my friends	1 2 3 4 5
4	The others can't do as well as me.	1 2 3 4 5
5	I learn something that is fun to do.	1 2 3 4 5
6	Others mess up and I don't.	1 2 3 4 5
7	I learn a new skill by trying hard.	1 2 3 4 5
8	I work really hard.	1 2 3 4 5
9	I score most points/goals/hits, etc.	1 2 3 4 5
10	Something I learn makes me want to go and practice more.	1 2 3 4 5
11	I'm the best.	1 2 3 4 5
12	A skill I learn really feels right.	1 2 3 4 5
13	I do my very best.	1 2 3 4 5

Ego Orientation Mean Scale Score = $\text{Items } 1 + 3 + 4 + 6 + 9 + 11 / 6$

Task Orientation Mean Scale Score = $\text{Items } 2 + 5 + 7 + 8 + 10 + 12 + 13 / 7$

to determine a correlation between a mastery climate and task orientation as well as between a performance climate and ego orientation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a difference in goal orientation among basketball players across gender and levels of competition. A second purpose was to determine if perceived motivational climate was related to the type of goal orientation that basketball players of both genders and levels of competition developed. The study utilized the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ). A total of 191 questionnaires were administered, (111 females and 80 males). Specifically, $n = 25$ male collegiate athletes, $n = 55$ high school males, $n = 47$ female collegiate athletes, and $n = 64$ high school females participated in the current study. It was first hypothesized that males would be more ego oriented whereas females would be more task oriented. A second hypotheses was that high school athletes would be more task oriented and collegiate athletes would be more ego oriented. The third hypothesis was that the motivational climate would be related to the athletes' goal orientation. A high mastery climate would be related to a high task orientation and a performance climate would be related to a higher ego orientation.

Means and standard deviations for task and ego orientation as well as mastery and performance climate were calculated for males and females in college and high school. These descriptive statistics are shown in Table 2. To determine if differences existed across genders and level of competition for goal orientations and motivational climate, a

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Goal Orientation and Motivational Climate by Gender and Level of Competition.

	Gender	Level	Mean +/- SD	n
Task	Female	College	3.95 +/-.53	47
		HS	4.09 +/-.73	64
	Male	College	3.99 +/-.68	25
		HS	4.25 +/-.63	55
	Total	College	3.96 +/-.58	72
		HS	4.16 +/-.69	119
Ego	Female	College	2.50 +/-.91	47
		HS	2.21 +/-.92	64
	Male	College	2.67 +/-.98	25
		HS	2.78 +/-.94	55
	Total	College	2.56 +/-.93	72
		HS	2.47 +/-.97	119
Mastery	Female	College	3.40 +/-.50	47
		HS	3.76 +/-.52	64
	Male	College	3.79 +/-.37	25
		HS	3.48 +/-.72	55
	Total	College	3.54 +/-.49	72
		HS	3.63 +/-.63	119
Performance	Female	College	3.09 +/-.55	47
		HS	2.66 +/-.62	64
	Male	College	2.97 +/-.43	25
		HS	3.07 +/-.58	55
	Total	College	3.05 +/-.51	72
		HS	2.85 +/-.63	119

two-way MANOVA was performed.

Differences in Goal Orientations Based on Gender and Level of Competition.

The MANOVA revealed that when combined by level of competition, high school athletes were more task oriented than collegiate athletes ($F(1, 187)=3.99, p=.047$). There were no significant differences found between levels of competition for ego orientation ($F(1, 187)=.41, p=.524$). When groups were combined gender, high school and collegiate males were found to be significantly higher in ego orientation than females ($F(1,187)=6.87, p=.010$). There were no differences by gender for task orientation ($F(1,187)=1.12, p=.291$) Total high school scores versus total college scores in goal orientation and motivational climate are shown in Figure 1 and 2. Total female scores compared to total male scores in goal orientation and motivational climate are shown in Figure 3 and 4. There were no significant gender by level of competition interactions found for task ($F(1,187)=.35, p=.554$) or ego ($F(1,187)=1.93, p=.166$) orientation.

Differences in Motivational Climate Based on Gender and Level of Competition.

A two-way MANOVA revealed significant differences based on gender and level of competition. College males were significantly ($p=.026$) higher in mastery than high school males and high school females were significantly ($p=.001$) higher in mastery than college females. MANOVA results indicated a significant gender by level of competition difference in mastery ($F(1,187)=14.37, p=.000$) and performance ($F(1,187)=9.09, p=.003$). The gender by level interaction for mastery and performance are shown in Figures 5 and 6.

Two one-way ANOVAs were run with a Bonferroni correction (α level required

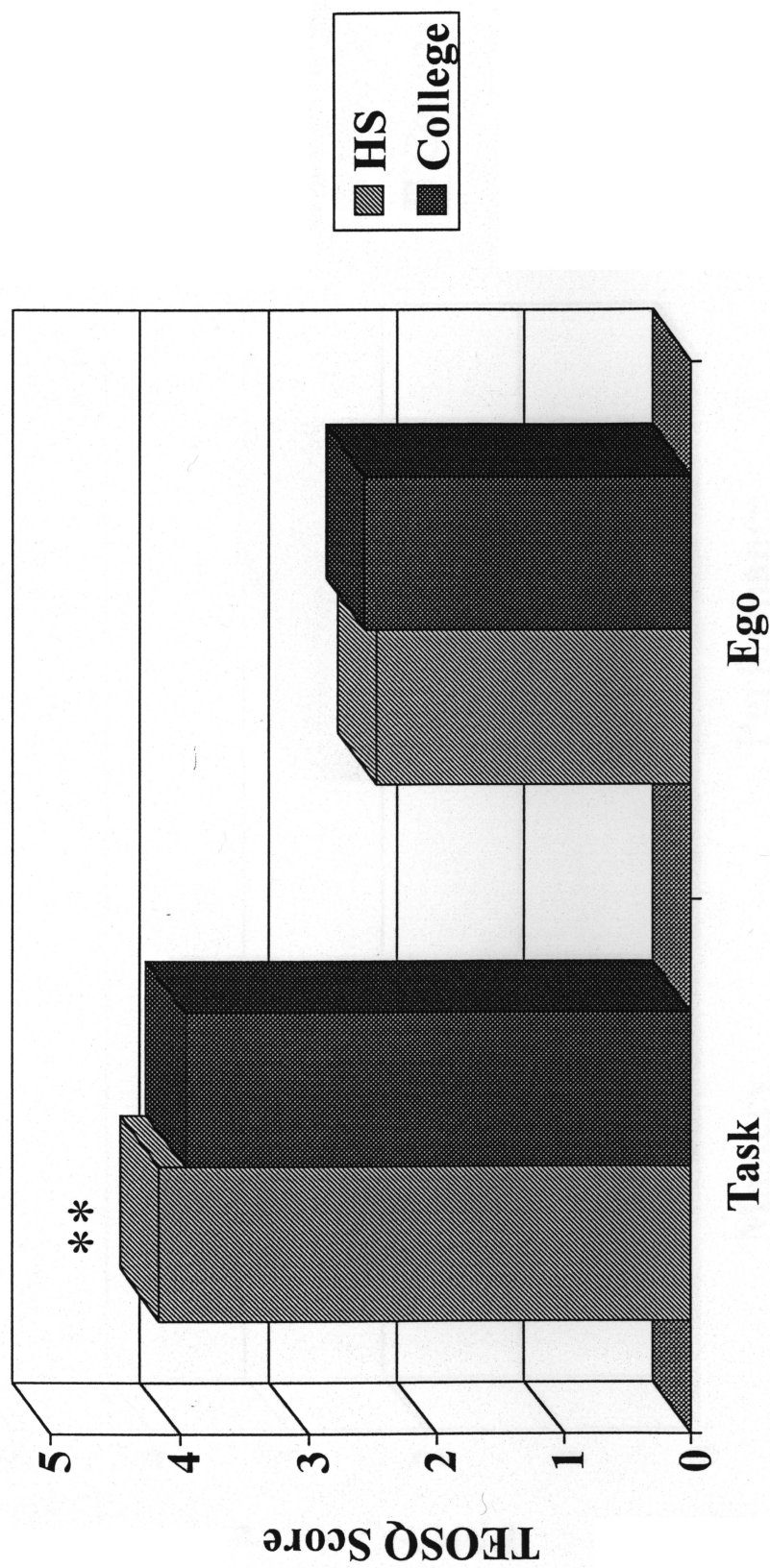


Figure 1. Mean Score for All High School vs. All College by Level of Competition for Goal Orientation.

** indicates significant difference by level of competition

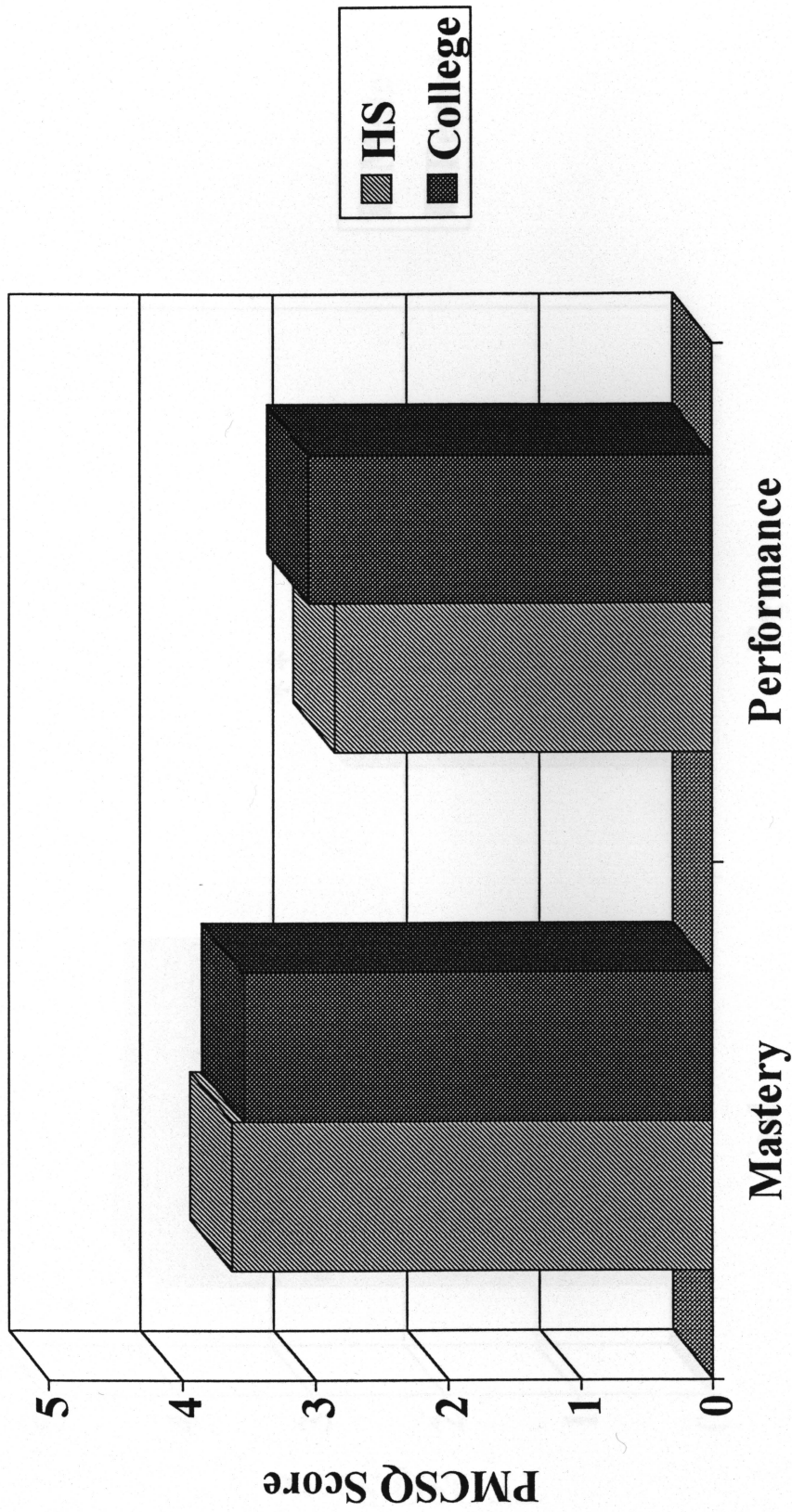


Figure 2. Mean Score for All High School vs. All College by Level of Competition for Motivational Climate.

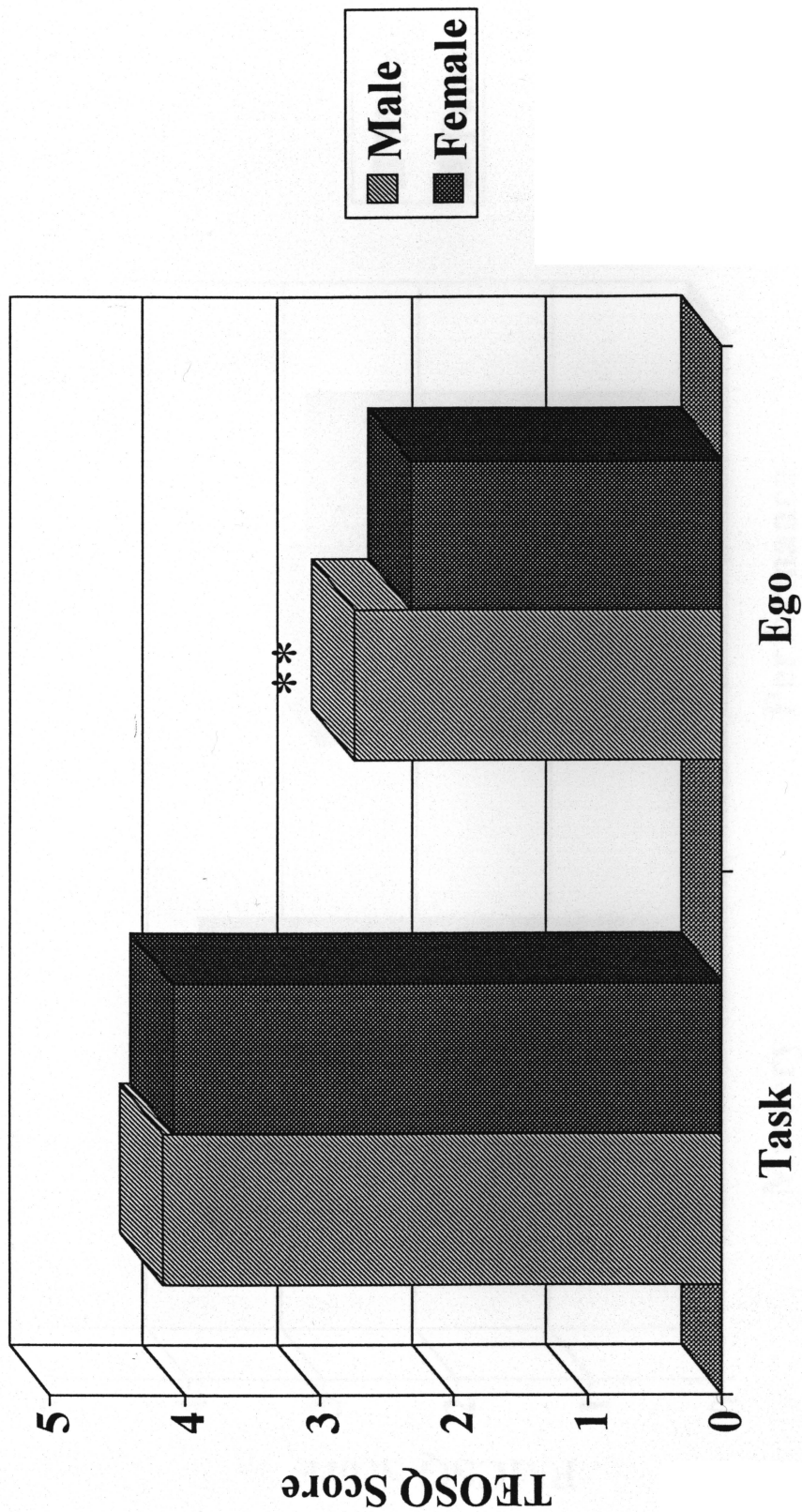


Figure 3. Mean Score for All Males vs All Females by Gender for Goal Orientation.

** indicates significant difference by gender

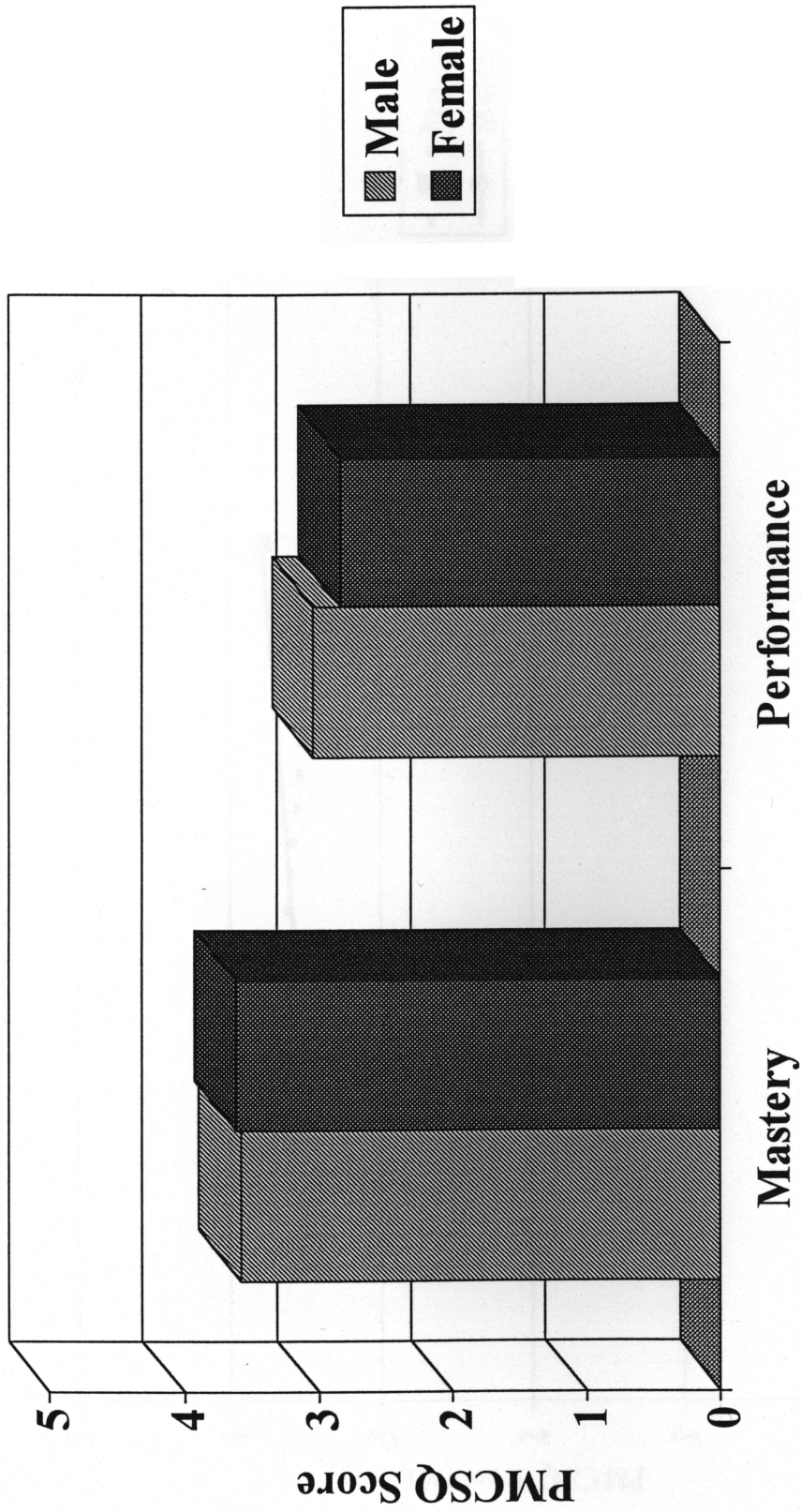


Figure 4. Mean Score for All Males vs All Females by Gender for Motivational Climate.

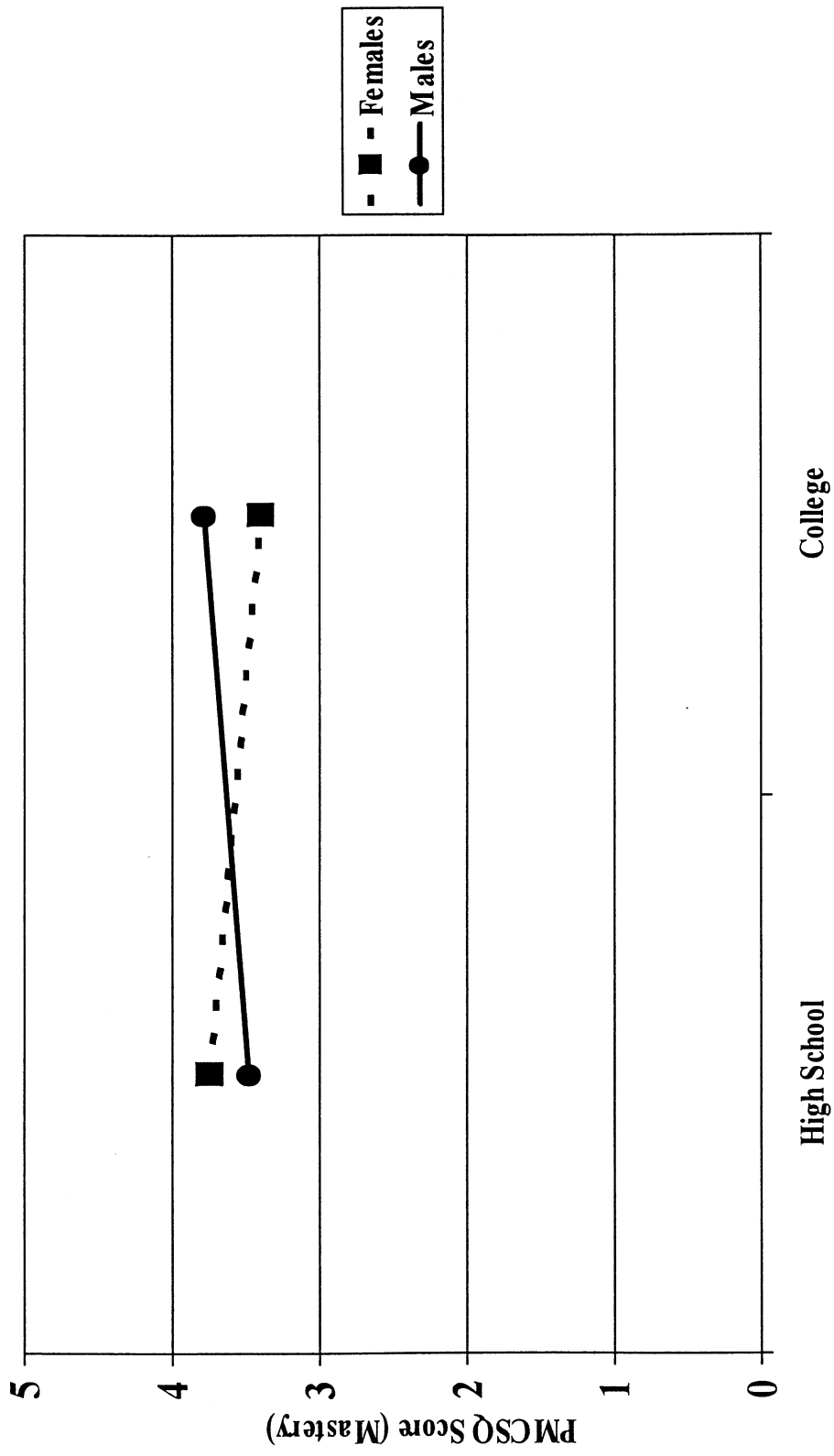


Figure 5. Gender by Level of Competition Interaction in Mastery Climate.

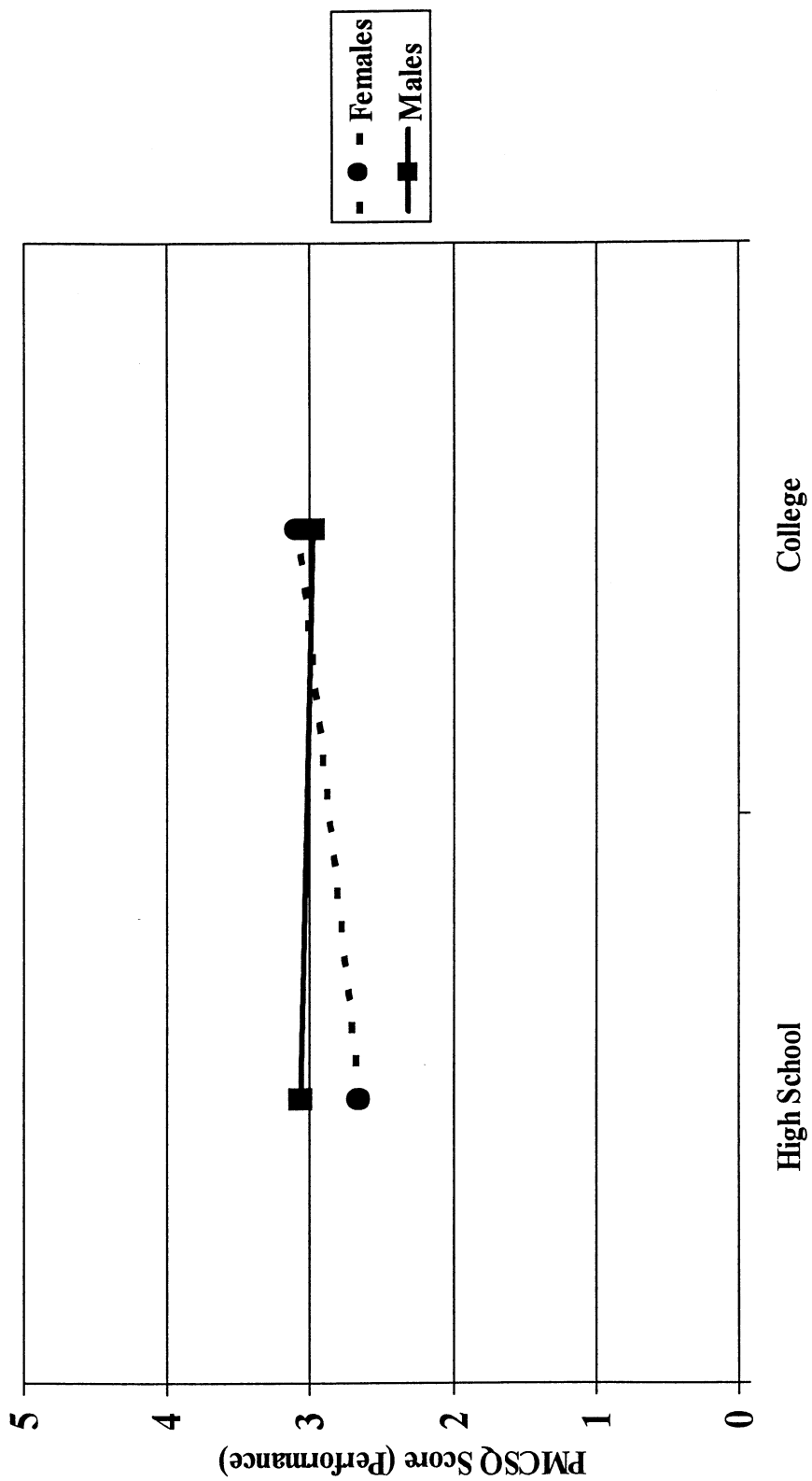


Figure 6. Gender by Level of Competition Interaction in Performance Climate.

for significance = .01) on gender and level of competition versus mastery and performance. High school females were significantly higher in mastery ($p=.049$) and performance ($p=.001$) than high school males. College females were significantly lower in mastery than college males ($p=.041$), however, there were no significant differences in performance climate ($p=1.00$). For levels of competition, high school females were significantly higher than college females ($p=.008$) in mastery, however, significantly lower in performance ($p=.001$). High school males showed no significant difference in mastery ($p=.155$) or performance ($p=1.00$) compared to college males.

Correlation Among Motivational Climate and Goal Orientation.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were performed to determine if there was a relationship between goal orientation and motivational climate. The results of this analysis indicated that there was a significant ($p=.000$) positive correlation ($r=.274$) between task orientation and mastery climate. There was also a significant correlation ($p=.000$) between a performance climate and ego orientation ($r=.354$). These relationships between goal orientation and motivational climate are shown in Figures 7 and 8.

The results in this study indicated that there were significant differences between genders for ego orientation, but not for task orientation. Male basketball players on both high school and collegiate teams were significantly higher in ego orientation when compared to female basketball players. This supported the first hypothesis in part that males would be higher in ego orientation, but females did not prove to be higher in task orientation. When comparing by level of competition, it was found that high school

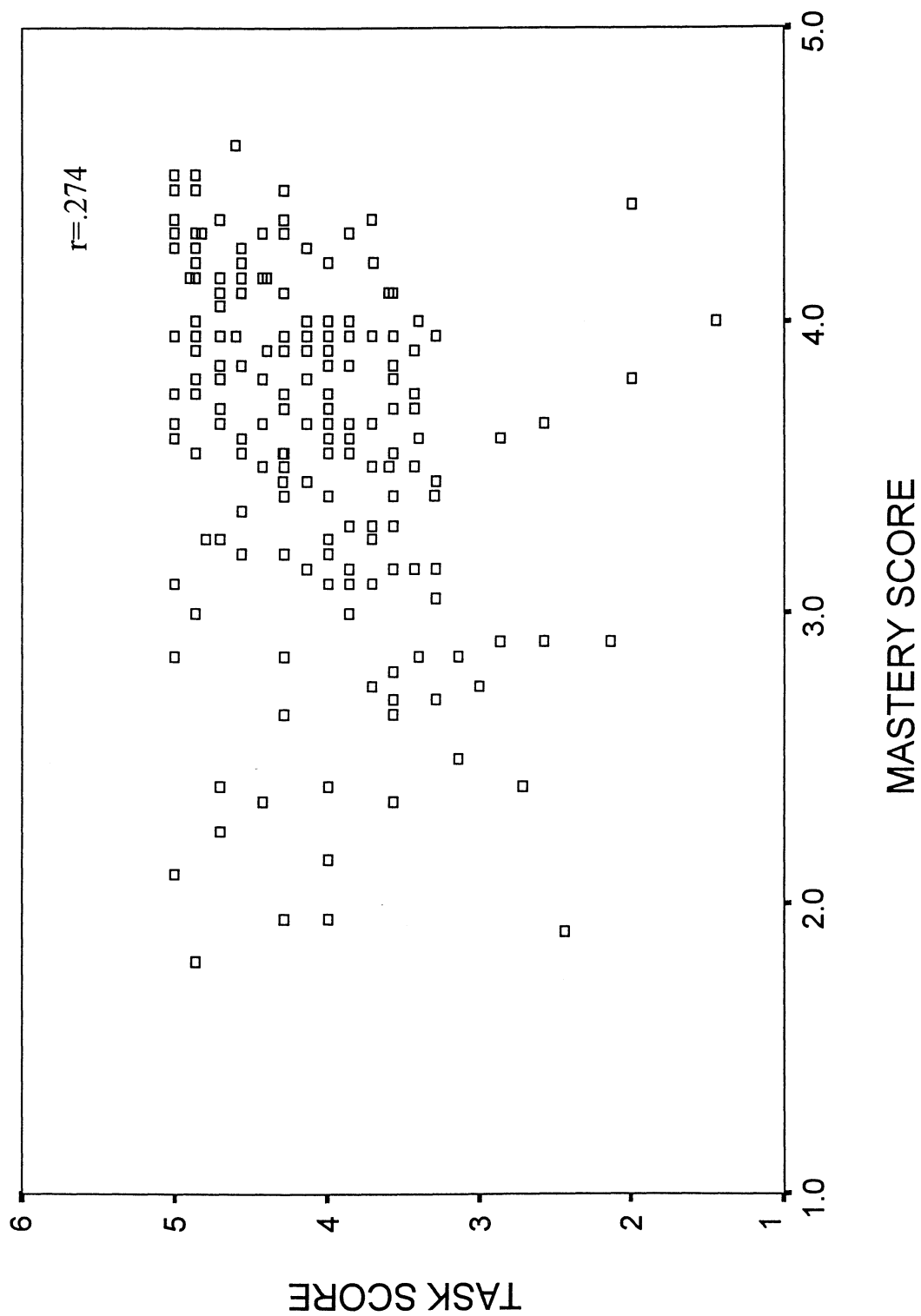


Figure 7. Correlation Between Individual Scores in Task Orientation and Mastery Climate.

** correlation significant at $p=.000$

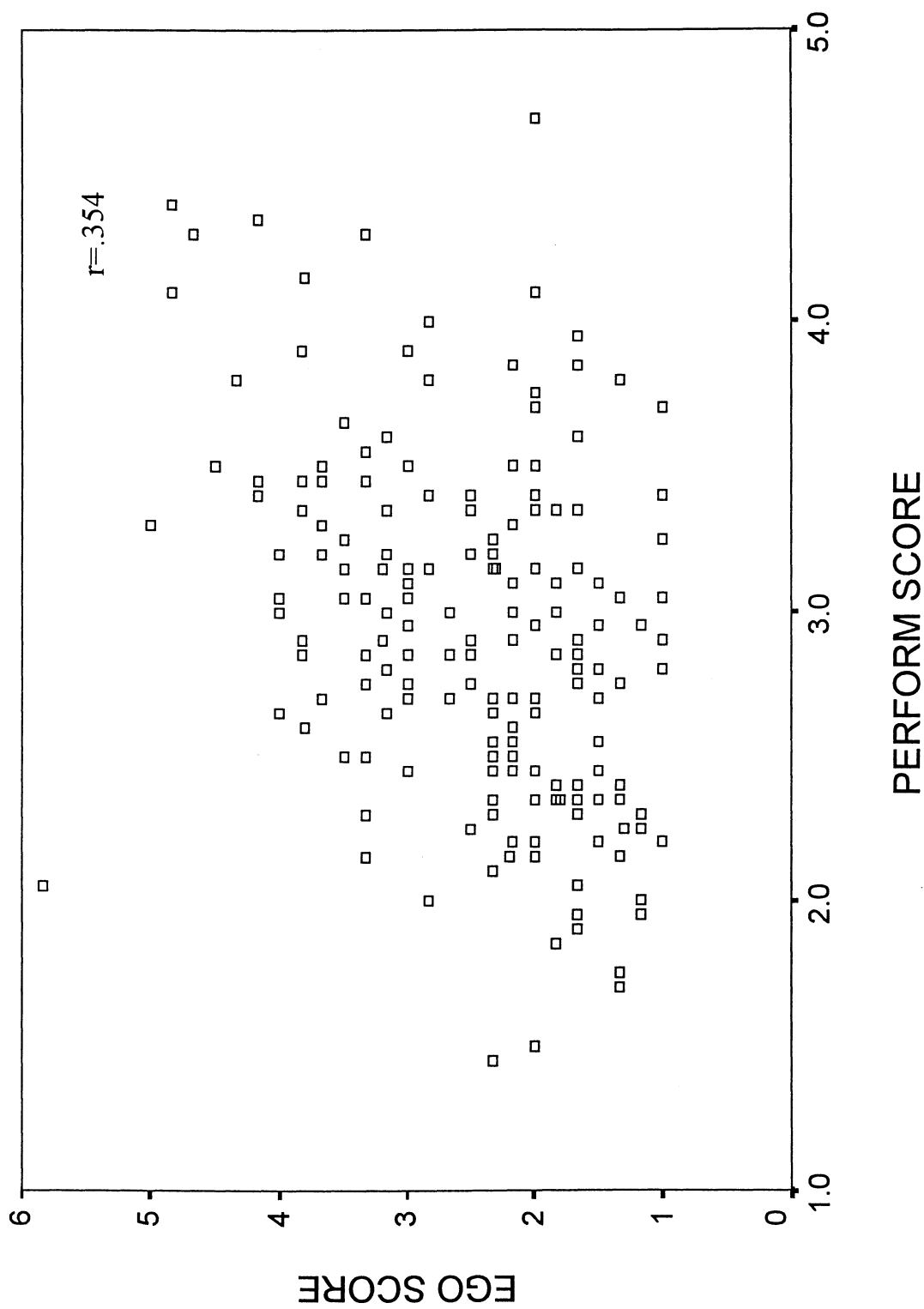


Figure 8. Correlation Between Individual Scores in Ego Orientation and Performance Climate.

** correlation significant at $p=.000$

basketball players were significantly higher in task orientation than college basketball players with no differences found between genders. This supported the second hypotheses that high school athletes would be more task oriented, however, collegiate athletes did not prove to be more ego oriented. A positive correlation was found between task orientation and a mastery climate as well as ego orientation and a performance climate. This supports the third hypotheses that the motivational climate would be related to one's goal orientation. A high task orientation would be related to a mastery climate and a high ego orientation would be related to a performance climate.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a difference in goal orientation among basketball players across gender and level of competition. A second purpose was to determine if perceived motivational climate was related to the type of goal orientation that basketball players of both genders and levels of competition developed. This study was unique compared to previous research in that males and females of both high school and collegiate basketball teams were examined at the same time.

Gender Differences in Goal Orientation

The male athletes in this study were significantly higher in ego orientation than the female athletes. This finding supported the first hypotheses that males would be more ego oriented than females. This is similar to the findings of several other studies.

White and Zellner (1996) also found that males scored higher in ego orientation than females. They studied 251 athletes who were competing either on a high school

varsity or a NCAA Division I team. The subjects participated in a wide variety of activities ranging from football to track. The males in White and Zellner's study had a mean score of 3.31 in ego orientation compared to the females who had a mean score of 3.15 in ego orientation. The scores found by White and Zellner (1996) are slightly higher than those found in this study, however they are similar in that the males scores are higher than the females. Even though a difference is noted among genders for ego orientation, it was not indicated that the difference was great enough to be considered significant. These results indicated that males were higher in ego orientation than females, which is consistent with the results found from the subjects in the present study. White and Zellner (1996) did not indicate why they felt these differences existed.

Another study comparing the differences between genders found that males scored higher in ego orientation than females and females scored higher in task orientation than males. Duda (1989) compared goal orientation in males and females in high school athletics. She found that the mean scores showed a difference between genders. (Task: Male= 4.28, Female= 4.45) (Ego: Male= 2.89, Female= 2.59) Males were higher in ego orientation and females were higher in task orientation. The scores found by Duda (1989) were similar to those in the present study in that the athletes scored in the higher end of task orientation and the lower end of ego orientation. Duda (1989) suggests that the results indicate that there may be some difference in the way males and females in high school athletics view their level of competence and process success and failure. She also found differences in the perceived purposes of sport between genders, which she suggested could be an indicator as to why a gender difference emerges in ego orientation.

Males believed sport participation to be an important indicator of social status and career mobility, while females saw sports as a way to work with others and try their best.

Duda's results support the findings in this study that show that males were higher in ego orientation.

Male basketball players in this study proved to be higher in ego orientation when compared to female basketball players. These results are consistent with those found for gender differences in past research. It is possible that their higher scores are due to the fact that male sports are more publicized than the others. In general, male athletes tend to receive more attention and higher attendance during their games compared to females. Since male athletes receive more attention, it is possible that this is the reason for their higher scores in ego involved questions. This can be supported by the idea that males, more than females, perceive sport to be an important means toward social status (Duda, 1989). It has also been mentioned that only males view athletic involvement as a way to receive recognition and popularity (Duda, 1989). This may begin to change with the increased reinforcement of Title IX. Females may also start to view athletic involvement as a way to achieve extrinsic rewards such as recognition.

Differences in Level of Competition and Goal Orientation

The results from this study support the second hypothesis that high school athletes would be higher in task orientation whereas collegiate athletes would be higher in ego orientation. Both genders in high school and college scored higher in task orientation than ego orientation, with high school athletes scoring significantly higher in task orientation compared to collegiate athletes. These findings are consistent with those in

previous research on goal orientation.

White and Duda (1994) reported that athletes who were involved in the highest competitive level of sport, intercollegiate athletics, were significantly higher in ego orientation than their adult counterparts who participated in a lower level of sport involvement, recreational athletics, youth sports, and high school athletics. The authors suggest that this difference was found because athletes who compete at a higher level of sport become more competitive. In highly competitive sports, winning becomes more important and the athletes become more ego oriented than they were in a less competitive atmosphere. According to Nicholls (1989), an individual's goal orientation will develop over time as they mature. Ego orientation is not truly realized until a child is approximately ten years old. It is at this age that children begin to understand ability. White and Duda (1989) found that the ego orientation subscale was internally consistent among the young athletes tested. These findings support those of Nicholls (1989). This could be why it has been found that younger athletes have not developed as high of an ego orientation as their older counterparts. These results support the findings of the present study that high school athletes were higher in task orientation than college athletes. The higher the level of competition, the more likely the athlete is to show higher scores in ego orientation.

Newton and Duda (1993) found younger athletes to be higher in task orientation, which supports the notion that high school athletes would be higher in task orientation than collegiate athletes. In looking at elite male and female adolescent athletes, they found that young elite tennis players tended to be primarily task oriented in sport. This

could be associated with the development of ego orientation. Children have not yet begun to understand ability in a way in which they can comprehend ego orientation (Nicholls, 1989). They also found female players to possess a stronger task orientation than their male counterparts. Newton and Duda (1993) suggested that the differences are due to the way athletes perceive themselves to be successful. They speculated that goal orientations are expressions of their beliefs about the causes of success in tennis. They found that females viewed effort as the cause of success more than males, and this could be why they were more task oriented. It can be concluded that high school athletes, or younger athletes, view effort to be the cause of success which leads to their higher task orientation. This is consistent with the findings in the present study where females were more task oriented as were the younger athletes.

The results from the basketball players in this study indicated that high school athletes were higher in task orientation when compared to collegiate athletes. It is possible that high school athletes are higher in task orientation due to the fact that they are still learning the skills need to become a better athlete. It could be said that the high school athletes do not quite understand the meaning of ability and because of this are unable to develop a higher ego orientation.

Correlations Among Motivational Climate and Goal Orientation

The results of this study support the third hypotheses that motivational climate would be related to goal orientation. It was hypothesized that task orientation would be related to a mastery climate and ego orientation would be related to a performance climate. A significant correlation was found between task orientation and mastery

climate as well as ego orientation and performance climate.

Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) found a relationship between mastery-oriented environments and task orientation as well as performance-oriented environments and ego orientation. When examining high school male varsity basketball players, they found that player who perceived mastery-oriented environments tended to be dispositionally task oriented. Those players who were exposed to a mastery-oriented climate tended to believe that applying effort was the best way to achieve success in basketball. They tended to try hard and focus on personal improvement. There was also an association between perceptions of a performance-oriented climate and ego orientation. Those exposed to a performance-oriented climate believed that ability was the cause of success. They were focused on competing with teammates and becoming the best player on the team. Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) suggest that the increased exposure to certain motivational climates may shape their dispositional goal perspective. This was due to the fact that motivational climate and dispositional goal orientation appear to be two different types of motivation.

Williams (1998), also found similar results when he studied influences and goal perspectives among female youth athletes. He found that perceptions of a mastery climate positively contributed to late season task orientation scores. Those who perceived a mastery climate were more task oriented at the end of the season as compared to those who viewed the climate as lower in mastery. In support of the findings of Ames and Archer (1988), Williams (1998) found that individuals who perceived a mastery climate were more likely to have attitudes related to a task orientation. He found that the change

in task orientation over the period of the season was related to the athlete's perception of a motivational climate. Williams (1998) found that female athletes who perceived a stronger mastery climate were more likely to become more task oriented throughout the season than those who did not perceive a strong mastery climate. He suggested that these changes were due to the athlete's perception of the mastery climate and the idea that in order to win, one must learn, try hard, and work well with others. However, he did not find any significant relationships between ego orientation and performance climate. Williams (1998) suggests that a high task orientation can be associated with an extended exposure to a mastery climate. This relation between a mastery climate and task orientation is similar to that found in the present study.

The results found in the present study are similar to those found in previous research indicating that there is a relationship between goal orientation and motivational climate. It is expected that if an individual is exposed to a particular motivational climate for an extended period of time that their goal orientations can be altered. If someone is high in task orientation and exposed to a performance climate, it might be speculated that they may tend to become lower in mastery and develop a higher ego orientation.

The results found in the present study provide evidence that the motivational climate in which one is exposed to can alter their goal orientation. Therefore, it is possible for a coach or influential individual to provide a proper environment for each player. Since males tend to be higher in ego orientation, by altering the practices so that they are more geared towards skill development rather than competition, males could become higher in task orientation. It is also possible with the current results, to know

how to deal with athletes as they transfer from high school to college. It was found that high school athletes were higher in task orientation than collegiate athletes. With proper training and education, collegiate athletes could keep their high task orientation when entering college. This can be achieved if collegiate athletes are exposed to a mastery climate in which they are instructed to focus on their skills and development as an individual. Although it is not necessarily negative to develop high ego orientation when entering higher, more competitive sport, it can be beneficial to keep a high task orientation too. Someone who is high task/high ego is most likely very motivated. These individuals are focused on doing their best and mastering the task at hand, while still having the competitive edge needed in elite sports.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a difference in goal orientation among basketball players across gender and level of competition. A second purpose was to determine if perceived motivational climate was related to the type of goal orientation that basketball players of both genders and level of competition developed. It was hypothesized that males would be more ego-oriented, while female athletes would be more task-oriented. The second hypotheses in this study was that high school athletes would be more task-oriented, whereas collegiate athletes would be more ego-oriented. The third hypotheses was that motivational climate would be correlated with the athletes' goal orientation whether they were male or female and in high school or college basketball. The subjects for this study were 119 high school basketball players and 72 collegiate basketball players. The instruments used in this study were the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ). The groups were compared based on gender and level of competition. It was found that each of the four groups, high school females, high school males, collegiate females and collegiate males, were all higher in task orientation than ego orientation. High school basketball players demonstrated significantly higher task orientation than collegiate basketball players. The data does not support the hypotheses that females would be higher in task orientation than males. However, the data does

support the hypotheses that high school athletes would be higher in task orientation than collegiate athletes. Male athletes were significantly higher in ego orientation than female athletes. This finding supports the hypothesis that males would be higher in ego orientation than females.

A two-way MANOVA indicated an interaction between gender and level of competition with goal orientation and motivational climate. College males were significantly higher in mastery than high school males, but college females were significantly lower in mastery than high school females.

In order to determine if a relationship existed between motivational climate and goal orientation, a Pearson's Correlation was run between these two variables. A significant correlation was demonstrated between ego orientation and performance climate as well as between task orientation and mastery climate. The results show agreement with the hypotheses that goal orientations would be correlated to the motivational climate.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings of this study examining goal orientations and motivational climate in male and female collegiate and high school basketball players, the following conclusions were formed.

1. Differences exist in goal orientation between high school and collegiate basketball players. High school basketball players were higher in task orientation than collegiate basketball players.
2. Male basketball players show a greater ego orientation than female basketball players, regardless of level of competition.
3. There was a low, yet significant, correlation between motivational climate and goal orientation. Specifically, those players in a performance climate showed a greater tendency for ego orientation and those in a mastery climate showed a greater tendency for a task orientation.

Limitations

There were several limitations within the current study that may have affected the findings. An important limitation was the low response rate from the male athletes. Had equal numbers of male and female subjects responded to the study, the results may have been more meaningful.

Another limitation may have been due to the fact that all of the questionnaires were not administered by the researcher. This could have possibly increased the return rate as well as definitely ensuring that the coaching staff was not present during the data

collection. Some of the subjects findings might have been influenced by the coaching staff's presence during the study. Even though the institutions were instructed to keep the coaching staff out of the room during the study, it is not possible to be sure that this was always the case.

Another limitation in the present study was found when performing a correlation to determine a relationship between motivational climate and goal orientation. The results of the correlation were unable to provide any meaningful evidence regarding a cause and effect relationship among the two variables.

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study indicate that differences among gender, level of competition and goal orientations need further study. It is suggested that, if possible, the questionnaires be given out by the individual performing the study. This would aid in a more positive return rate and ensure that the coaches are not present at the time of the study. It is also suggested that in future research the subjects are monitored more closely during the time in which they complete the given questionnaire. This may aid in providing honest results and to see that each athlete completes the questionnaire correctly without leaving any questions unanswered. It is recommended that in future research, a variety of sports from several different locations are included in the study. It may be beneficial to conduct research on how an athlete's goal orientation could be affected based on the different actions of coaches and parents. If a coach begins to observe strong ego orientations from his players, and he alters the environment, how might this affect

their goal orientation? If the athletes' parents provide a different motivational climate than their coach, how might this affect their goal orientation? It would be useful to determine how long one has to be exposed to a specific type of motivational climate before their goal orientations begin to be altered.

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APPENDIX A- Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ)

TASK AND EGO ORIENTATION IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

(developed by Joan Duda and John Nicholls)

Directions: Please read each of the statements listed below and indicate how much you personally agree with each statement by circling the appropriate response.

When do you feel most successful in sport? In other words, when do you feel a sport activity has gone really good for you?

I feel most successful in sport when.....

NOTE: Likert Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

1	I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.	1 2 3 4 5
2	I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more	1 2 3 4 5
3	I can do better than my friends	1 2 3 4 5
4	The others can't do as well as me.	1 2 3 4 5
5	I learn something that is fun to do.	1 2 3 4 5
6	Others mess up and I don't.	1 2 3 4 5
7	I learn a new skill by trying hard.	1 2 3 4 5
8	I work really hard.	1 2 3 4 5
9	I score most points/goals/hits, etc.	1 2 3 4 5
10	Something I learn makes me want to go and practice more.	1 2 3 4 5
11	I'm the best.	1 2 3 4 5
12	A skill I learn really feels right.	1 2 3 4 5
13	I do my very best.	1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B- Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ)

THE PERCEIVED MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions ask you how you perceive your involvement with your current sport. Please take a moment to think about what it is like to be involved in this sport through the season and answer the questions below. Please answer honestly, as there is no right or wrong response.

On this Team...	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
1. Players feel good when they do better than their teammates in a game.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Players often do extra work after practice to improve their skills.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Players are punished when they make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Trying hard is rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The coach feels good about us only when we beat the other team.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The coach makes sure players improve on the skills they're not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The only thing that matters is winning.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The coach is happy as long as we try hard.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The only way players get playing time is if they have talent.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The focus is to improve each game.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Players are taken out of the game for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Players are rewarded when they work hard.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Playing better than teammates is important.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It's important to keep trying even though you make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Coach gives most of his/her attention to the "stars".	1	2	3	4	5
16. Even if we lose, coach feels good about us when we play well.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Doing better than others is important.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The most important thing is how you play the game (not winning or losing)	1	2	3	4	5

On this Team...	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
19. Teammates compete against each other for playing time.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The coach tries to find out what skill each player wants to improve on.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The coach favors some players over others.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Players work hard because they want to learn new things about this sport.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Everyone wants to be the high scorer.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As long as players try hard, they won't get yelled at.	1	2	3	4	5
25. The most important thing is the final score.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Players are encouraged to work on their weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Being "number one" is what counts.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Everyone feels like he/she has an important role on the team.	1	2	3	4	5
29. It is important to show the coach that you are better than the rest.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Players sometimes get to choose the skills that they want or need to work on.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Players always want to know everyone else's game "stats".	1	2	3	4	5
32. The coach wants us to try new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Only the top players "get noticed" by the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Mistakes are part of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Players are afraid to make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Players like playing against good teams.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Only a few players can be "stars".	1	2	3	4	5
38. Most of the players get to play in the games.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Players are encouraged to outplay their own teammates.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Coach wants to learn how to solve problems on our own.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C-Informed Consent

Goal Orientation vs. Motivation in Athletes

My name is April Frost and I am a graduate student at Eastern Illinois University. I am conducting a study for my masters thesis, which requires me to obtain research on the differences between male and female basketball players of different age groups. I would greatly appreciate it if you would complete the two attached questionnaires to the best of your ability. Please be honest and take your time in filling them out to ensure the results will be valid. The information will be completely confidential and your name does not need to be associated with the questionnaires. Your responses will not affect you in any way, as I will be the only one who will see the results. It is your option as to whether or not you would like to participate in this study. At any time, if you become uncomfortable answering the questions it is your right to stop. Thank-You very much for your cooperation and it is greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX D- Administration of Questionnaires

When administering the questionnaires:

I would first like to thank you for taking your time to help out with this research project. In order to reduce any error in the study a few procedures need to be followed when distributing the questionnaires. It is best if the athletes fill the questionnaires out as a group. This will help in keeping them focused on the questions to see that they are answered as accurately as possible. Also, since this is a psychologically based study, it is preferred that the coach is not present when the athletes are completing the questionnaires. This will avoid any influences that the coaching staff may have on the athlete's responses. Once they have completed both of the questionnaires, I have enclosed a self-addressed stamped envelope to return them in. Once again, thank you very much for your help it is greatly appreciated.

Thank-You,

April Frost, ATC

MS candidate

Physical Education

Eastern Illinois University

APPENDIX E- Demographic Information

PERSONAL PROFILE**(collegiate athletes)**

AGE:

GENDER:

HEIGHT/WEIGHT:

RACE (optional):

CLASS (freshman, sophomore, etc):

HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN INVOLVED IN BASKETBALL:

WHAT POSITION DO YOU PLAY:

WHAT IS YOUR PLAYING STATUS (starter, reserve, etc.):

PERSONAL PROFILE**(high school athletes)**

AGE:

GENDER:

HEIGHT/WEIGHT:

RACE (optional):

GRADE (freshman, sophomore, etc):

HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN INVOLVED IN BASKETBALL:

WHAT TEAM ARE YOU CURRENTLY PLAYING ON (varsity, jv, freshman..):

WHAT POSITION DO YOU PLAY:

WHAT IS YOUR PLAYING STATUS (starter, reserve, etc.):